


L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'URBANISME
COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

- 
- PLANNING CONFERENCE 1957
 - URBAN SPRAWL
 - MUNICIPAL BOUNDARIES
 - QUELLE SORTE DE LOGEMENTS?
 - RURAL PLANNING
 - CAPITAL BUDGET: WHY AND HOW?
 - NEW PLANNING LAW AT WORK
 - HALIFAX REDEVELOPMENT

COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW

REVUE CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

VOLUME VII NUMBER 4
DECEMBER 1957

COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA
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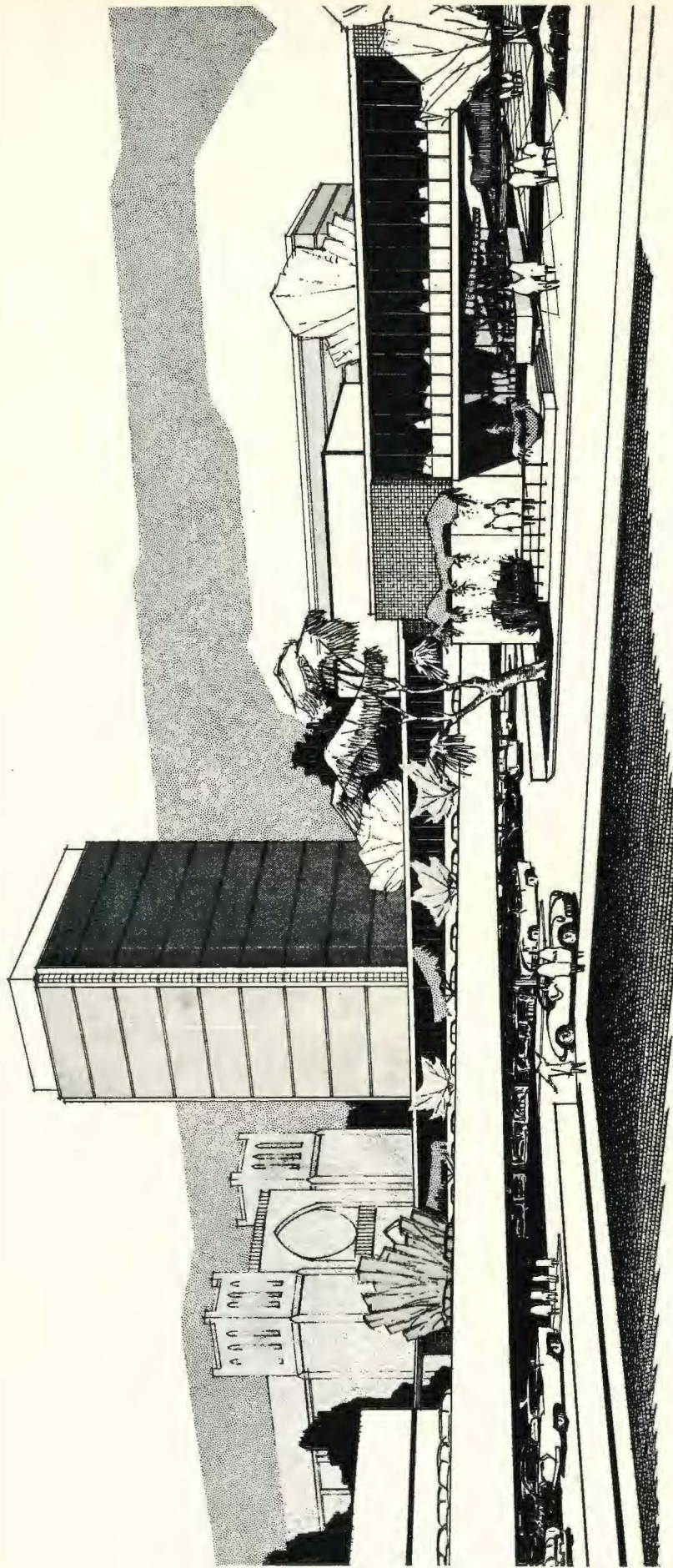
REVUE CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

Editor: ERIC BEECROFT

Volume VII, Number 4.

Ottawa, December 1957

COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA
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VICTORIA: PLAN FOR A CIVIC CENTRE

A plan of a civic centre for Victoria has been prepared by the Capital Region Planning Board of B.C. The plan combines two downtown city blocks and provides a site for a new city hall and a new court house. The construction of these buildings is now under consideration.

A focal point of the plan is Christ Church Cathedral around which a civic square has been designed. The site is on a promontory, and the buildings will be seen on the skyline of the city. A 400-car two-level parking garage is provided. The interior of the site is a landscaped park-like area.

Le Capital Region Planning Board of B.C. a préparé le plan d'un centre civique pour la ville de Victoria. Ce plan comprend deux quartiers urbains et prévoit un emplacement pour un nouvel hôtel de ville et un palais de justice. La construction de ces deux édifices est à l'étude.

Christ Church Cathedral, autour de laquelle est projeté un centre urbain, constitue le noyau du plan. Cet endroit est situé sur un promontoire et les édifices se découperont sur la ligne d'horizon de la ville. On a prévu un garage de stationnement à deux étages pouvant contenir jusqu'à 400 automobiles. L'embellissement de l'intérieur donne à l'en-semble l'aspect d'un parc.

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Volume VII, No. 4
December
1957

Authorized as second class mail, Post Office Department, Ottawa.
Autorisé comme envoi postal de 2e. classe, Ministère des Postes.

OUR CITIES: A NEW PERSPECTIVE FOR NEW DIMENSIONS

by George S. Mooney

This is the address delivered by Mr. Mooney at the opening session of the 1957 Conference of the Community Planning Association of Canada in Vancouver, British Columbia, September 30, 1957. Mr. Mooney is Executive Director of the Canadian Federation of Mayors and Municipalities. He has held many important positions with the City of Montreal, including that of Industrial Commissioner and that of Director of the City's St. Lawrence Seaway Bureau. During the war, from 1939 to 1942, he served the Government of Canada, and from 1942 to 1947 he was Chief Executive Officer of the Administrative Council of UNRRA.

Gertrude Stein's classic observation that "a rose is a rose is a rose is a rose" will be as true a thousand years hence as it was on the day she first uttered the thought. In the flora of nature, a rose, to all intents, is an immutable creation capable of but hardly susceptible to change. The biblical rose of Sharon and the roses now growing in the gardens of Vancouver would be as similar to one another as will be the roses that will be growing in the milleniums yet to come.

But if inanimate nature is slow to change, and if the animal kingdom evolves from its captive past almost imperceptibly, the same cannot be said of that restless and imaginative creature 'homo sapiens'.

From the time the first man discovered that he could kindle a fire by rubbing two stones against each other and that the crotched branch of a slender tree provided a useful hook with which to catch a fish, man and his progeny have moved, more or less fitfully, but nonetheless progressively, from one stage of development to another.

If the evidence is not readily discernible in man's anatomy, it is readily apparent in his folkways and his social habitat. The customs and ways of living of an average citizen of Jericho and a typical 20th century city-dweller have their similarities; but greater by far than the similarities are the differences. There are few of us who would want to revert to the ways of living and the urban milieu of those who lived in Jericho when its walls came tumbling down. The most romantic among us would have reservations about that!

We would have reservations, because, no matter how much we idealize the idyllic past, it does not offer a stepping stone forward to tomorrow but only a road back to many yesterdays. It is the present and the alluring promise of things to come that give life its redolent vitality. In the final analysis our dreams are greater than our memories for it is from them that we generate the compulsions that drive us

forward. It is not to yesterday that we seek to return; it is toward tomorrow that most of us have set our direction.

That is why you and I are attending this meeting. Some of us have come a long way. All of us are busy people. There are a hundred and one other things we could be doing. What is the central idea that brings us together? Stripped of all its trimmings, it's the same old Golden Fleece that mankind has always been seeking, namely: how can we get from where we are to where our dreams are beckoning us to go?

Down through history, people like you and me, and generations such as ours, have thought and dreamed about tomorrow. In the pre-historic ages, the placid tempo of life carried over from one pastoral generation to another and, save for floods and famines which uprooted peoples, and warring marauders who laid waste the countryside, the even tenor of existence went on undisturbed. Always a new habitat was found and the cycle of orderly living again took root.

Somewhere along the way man decided to make a stand against the ravages of nature and the predatory propensities of his own species. Long before he knew anything about metals, or had learned to polish stones and sharpen them into instruments of warfare, he built a cluster of dwellings and established a form of communal life.

Probably the first of such settlements were cave and lake dwellings and fortified villages. In the beginning, these habitations were only temporary refuges for the women and children and the sick and aged of the tribe. But as the tribe grew in numbers, necessity demanded a division of labour among its members and soon the temporary camp refuge became a permanent organized community. The road is long from the cluster of huts built by paleolithic man and

the modern metropolis of this atomic age; but both derive from the same origin and need and the most modern city still bears the imprint of its historical past.

Evidence of that is familiar to all of us. Our cities are still located where, from time immemorial, a shallow ford permitted the crossing of a river, or where footpaths converged upon a mountain pass, or where small fishing boats once put in from the sea. Many of our public buildings reflect the architectural design and functional requirements of centuries past and the street patterns of many of our proudest cities are inherited from the cowpaths, boat landings and stage coach tracks of long ago. This is what makes every city a paradox: a contrast between ugliness and beauty, between disorder and functional efficiency, between blight and betterment, between the decaying past and the gleaming promise of the future. And it is these paradoxes from whence spring the social paradoxes of our cities: the contrast between learning and illiteracy, between culture and ignorance, between health and sickness, between good and evil, between human well-being and human despair. And it is from such paradoxes that men dream dreams and plan the future.

The cities that you and I live in today bear the indelible imprints of their past. It could not be otherwise, for they are the captives of the sites on which their founders established the first community thereabouts. The topography of the land and the nature of the subsoil and the source of the water supply are the natural heritage upon which they have grown and developed; and while man can modify these natural features and, in a sense control them, he cannot change them or alter their fundamental characteristics. Only yesterday, or so it seems, these cities and towns of ours were primeval wilderness or windswept prairies. Every one of them began as a tiny outpost of civilization, some during the colonial era of the 17th century, others during the frontier expansion of the 18th century, others during the pre-confederation and post-confederation period of the Victorian era; and some in the more recent past. Each reflects its origin and early civic design and within each is the accretion of its past growth and development.

Until comparatively recent years our cities and towns grew relatively slowly. At the time of Confederation, the total population of Canada was approximately 3½ million, of whom the vast majority lived in rural areas. Vancouver was an undeveloped townsite, and Calgary, Edmonton, Regina, Saskatoon, Verdun, Sydney, Fort William, Moose Jaw and a host of other places just didn't exist. The City of Winnipeg was an outpost of the Hudson Bay Company (Fort Garry) with a population of 241, and Moncton was a hamlet of 600 souls. There were only three cities with a population of over 50,000: Montreal having 130,833, Quebec 59,699 and Toronto 59,000.

In succeeding decades the population grew to 4½ million by 1881; to about 5 million by 1891; to 5½ million by 1901. It was a slow even rhythmical growth. In thirty years, between 1871 and 1901, we added about 1½ million to the population. Then began the first large waves of immigration. By 1911 the population of Canada had pyramided to

7½ million and, for the first time, the major impact of growth was in the cities and towns. It was a period of hectic urban expansion and of new suburban development. Urban real estate values sky-rocketed. Tens of thousands of new homes were built, many of them flimsy jerry-built, overnight throw-ups. Municipal governments, confident that the urban millenium had arrived in Canada, went on a spending spree in every direction. Then came the first World War and with it the collapse of the pre-war urban boom.

In the wake of World War I came the golden decade of the 1920's and by the time the famous cyclonic Black Thursday of October 1929 hit the country the population had grown to about 10 million. It was an era of prosperity and prohibition. The wonders of crystal radio sets made their first appearance, as did the electric refrigerator and a myriad of other household and other consumer gadgets, the most conspicuous of which was Mr. Ford's Model T. It took to the roads and highways in ever mounting number; and, forthwith, macadamized highways began to replace the dirt and cobblestone roads which had served man's needs before and since the days of Roman chariots and the hackney cab driver.

The depression thirties that followed brought urban growth and development virtually to a halt. Throughout the nineteen-twenties new housing construction was not enough to keep pace with the population growth. By the end of the war, in 1945, a case could be made demonstrating a theoretical backlog of unbuilt housing units in the Montreal area in excess of 100,000 units. The total population of Canada, meanwhile, had grown to about 12½ million, the growth being mainly in urban communities, particularly the larger cities, a trend which the war had accelerated consequent upon the rapid and large scale development of defence and related industries.

In the twelve years that have elapsed since 1945, Canada has experienced its greatest growth. The population has increased almost twenty percent and is now approaching 17 million. Canadians have discovered themselves and the world has rediscovered Canada.

People and capital have been flooding into the country. The backlog of unbuilt housing has been caught up with in part; but not sufficiently to house all the people wanting or needing new housing. Cities and suburbs are bursting at their seams and spilling over, sprawling over into the surrounding region. Automobile ownership has grown at an amazing rate, proportionately faster than the population. Virtually every major industry has expanded and hundreds of new industries—large and small, producing every kind of consumer and capital goods—have been established. The gross national product has pyramided from one height to another and last year was in excess of 28 billion. It has been a fabulous period of growth and development.

But though we have been moving ahead with seven league strides, we have not solved all our problems. The very fact of explosive growth has created new ones. Lacking any overall plan, there has been an imbalance in our progress; rapid in some directions, slow in others, marking time and even losing ground in some quarters. Our cities are an example of the uneven advances that we have been making.

OUR CITIES: A NEW PERSPECTIVE

In urban housing, we have overbuilt for the rich and underbuilt for the poor. We have widened main thoroughfares at public expense for the benefit of the community, and by our failure to regulate their use we have allowed the private automobile to crowd public transit almost off the streets. We have spent millions on new hospitals, but we haven't yet found a way to spread equitably the costs of medical care. We have constructed vast additions to university buildings, but the cost of higher education is shutting out many worthy students from entering their doors. We have built pleasant suburban communities and have left unattended the blight and creeping decay of the city's slums.

These are but some of the anomalies of our city civilization. There is a facade of splendour about it; but behind it lurk ominous danger signals that this generation cannot afford to close its eyes to. Traffic congestion on our city streets is clogging the arteries by which they live. People and goods must be able to move freely from places of trade and commerce, or trade and commerce within cities will wither away. Slums are breeders of disease and crime and disease and crime are costly to a city. And so are noise and smells and street accidents and polluted water and polluted air and open garbage.

Some will say such things have always plagued cities. Rome, in the height of its glory, became the victim of its own size and its own ineptitude to plan and control its growth and regulate its communal life. The records tell us that large tracts of land around the centre of the city fell into the hands of real estate speculators; that the growing population was crowded into tenements; and that the narrow streets became intolerably congested. All of which has a familiar ring, even including the municipal law enacted under Julius Caesar which prohibited vehicular traffic within the limits of the city. An exception was made only for carts bringing food, which could be driven in the city at night; in the day time, only pedestrians were allowed to use the streets.

After Nero's fiddling, in the first century of the Christian era, Rome changed greatly. Its centre was rebuilt under the Emperor Augustus who, according to the historian Suetonius, "boasted, not without reason, that he had found Rome built of brick and left it in marble". Broad thoroughfares were cut through the maze of tenements; splendid public buildings were erected, among them huge public baths with various recreative facilities; and the city made secure against inundations and fires—to quote the historian, "as far as human foresight could effect this".

Many things have happened to our cities since the days when the Emperor Augustus set out to make Rome over. But the most spectacular are these things taking place right now. At no previous time has there been a greater transformation in the face of our cities and their surroundings than that which is taking place before our very eyes. A revolution is underway in man's concept of urban function and design, the like of which has no parallel in history. But like so much that this generation has been up to, it is proceeding unevenly and the historical anomalies, to which we have already referred, continue to characterize much that we are doing.

The paradoxes reflected in our housing programs; the imbalance between new suburban development and the crying need to rehabilitate the older sections of our cities; the construction of vast networks of urban highways with inadequate control and regulatory measures to assure that they are highways to move traffic and not merely invitations to commercial enterprise to exploit them for such things as outdoor theatres, shopping centres, roadside hot dog stands, and the like. These examples serve to underline the fact that, while we are making great progress in meeting certain of the needs of the modern city, we are failing miserably in meeting other needs.

We are failing because we have no adequate plans to mobilize and channel public and private initiative and spending into a co-operative and integrated program of urban growth and development, including urban renewal. Nor have we proper priorities even for the things we are doing or which we contemplate doing. As a consequence, projects of demonstrably high community need and importance are side-tracked for projects of relatively low need and importance; which is another way of saying that too much of what we are spending could be better spent on things other than what we are spending it on; and this applies to both private and public spending on community developments. Moreover, too often the new values being created by urban growth are at the cost of destroying existing values and, too frequently, even the new values we are creating are being jeopardized by non-conforming encroachments. All this is costly; and most of it is unnecessary.

Hitherto, urban growth and development have taken place as a result of the separate decisions of the tens, hundreds, or thousands of individual citizens, merchants, manufacturers and other separate bodies who comprise the community. Each succeeding generation has added its quota of new development. A man bought a piece of land and built a house on it. Or a company purchased a site and built a factory. And as the community grew, the community itself, through its local government, or its school trustees, or its hospital board, added its share of public buildings and improvements. And, as provincial and federal governments and their agencies extended the scope of their activities, they acquired land and developed it for their particular use. And so it was with the railways and with harbour commissions and other separate bodies, both private and public. And so it was with the advent of air travel and the necessity to construct airports adjacent to our cities.

From time immemorial our cities have grown and developed willy-nilly in response to the separate decisions of many people and many bodies who, acting in what they considered were their own best interests, constructed homes here, factories there, a railway marshalling yard at this point and a stockyard and slaughter house at that point.

Up to a point it seemed to work out very well. The problems it produced were to a great extent rationalized by municipal by-laws regulating building construction and, more recently, through zoning ordinances limiting land usage to prescribed types of housing, commercial and industrial development. By and large that is the measure of community

control presently in force in most municipalities, and, by and large, that is why most of our cities are jungles of dense land usage, functional confusion and disorderly civic design. It is also an underlying factor contributing to the flight to the suburbs and the spread of urban sprawl.

If, hitherto, we have managed to control rhythmical urban growth not too badly, the prospect of controlling the explosive growth that now characterizes our urban communities and which promises to accelerate in the coming years, is none too sanguine unless we provide better instruments of control and co-ordination than presently are available. The uninhibited and almost unrestrained freedom of the real estate promoter to open up new subdivisions and the tendency of new industry and commerce to lop off preferred sites that might better be utilized for other purposes, must be brought under more effective control than presently is the case. And no less is the need for better co-ordination between private undertakings and local governments and between the federal and provincial governments and the local governments of any area where federal or provincial public works or other improvements are being constructed.

The idea that our cities are merely places where this or that activity, private or public, can be carried on to advantage, and that this or that activity is free to locate in this or that locality, must give way to the primary consideration that cities are for people and it is their interests and well-being which must underlie all other considerations. Land usage must accommodate itself to the needs of people and the well-being of the community in which people live; or, in the long run, people will desert the community for more pleasant and more satisfying surroundings.

Looking to the future, we Canadians are anticipating that within the next quarter of a century our national population will be of the order of 30 million or more. We are expecting that 75 percent or more of us will be living in urban centres and mainly in the larger metropolitan cities or their surrounding region. It is forecast that our gross national production, now running at about \$28 billions, will go up to \$65 or \$70 billions. All this spells growth and more growth. It means bigger cities and sprawling metropolitan regions which, with improved highways, will encompass urban areas 60 to 75 miles beyond the centres of our cities; or as much as 5 to 6 thousand square miles.

What are our cities going to look like 25 years from now? There are those who envisage a dramatically new kind of city, where homes, factories, offices and civic amenities will be as novel and exciting as the promise of the atomic age. New and lighter building materials, weather-proof, sound-proof and fire-proof, and new concepts of design, are already revolutionizing the housing industry. Unseen and silent mechanical servants and electric gadgets are rapidly eliminating virtually every household chore. If imaginative magazine writers are to be believed, we shall see gleaming factories set in landscaped parks and towering office buildings sheathed in stainless and porcelain-enamelled steels with push-button devices of every description with impersonal and crewless automation in control. There will be civic centres and

concert halls constructed in aluminum and glass, with mammoth parking lots underneath and thin-shell mushroom-shaped concrete roofs of civic sports centres set back in garden plazas off wide sweeping tree-lined boulevards. The schools of tomorrow will have windowless air-conditioned alcoves heated and bathed with stored sunlight and swept with health rays and buttressed against all sound for quiet study. There will be huge multi-deck automatic parking lots on the edge of downtown districts, with noiseless underground conveyor belts to carry pedestrians into the city, and beneath the shopping district a net work of conveyors to move shoppers from store to store and workers from one office building to another. There will be comfort, speed and efficiency everywhere and jobs and security for everyone!

Fanciful? Perhaps some of it is. But we live in a new and advanced age of science and technology; and who is to say that the improbable is impossible? Much of it is already in the making, and all of it or something like it and perhaps much more is not beyond our achievement.

As I swept across the country yesterday on T.C.A.'s Super-Constellation I could not help becoming a little romantic about the future of our country and of its cities. In relatively quick succession, we flew over the outskirts of Montreal and thence on to Ottawa and Toronto, the Lake-head Cities and Winnipeg, and then across the wide sweep of the prairies, flying some 18,000 feet over Brandon, Regina and Calgary, and then the hop over the Rockies to the blue Pacific and this burgeoning City of Vancouver. I thought of the tremendous growth that these cities and other Canadian cities have been experiencing these recent years. And then I projected my thoughts into the years ahead. I saw all of these cities 25 years from now with double their present populations; some with treble their present growth. They are already bursting at the seams. I saw them as they will be not so many years hence occupying two and three times their present land area, sprawling out and engulfing more of the surrounding countryside, filling it with factories and new homes and other new developments.

An air view of Canada's cities is a little different from the land view. From the ground your perspective is limited. From the air it is expansive and the scope and dimensions are far greater. I am not sure that the analogy is the best but I want to suggest that we need more air view planning for our Canadian cities and less ground view thinking. To put it another way, we need fresh and new perspectives for the new dimensions which exploding urban growth is creating.

Half a century ago, Burnham called upon the planners of his day "to make no little plans". It took imagination and courage to conceive and implement the bold conceptions which transformed Chicago from a drab, mid-western stockyard town to the splendour it achieved under the impact of Burnham's visionary thinking. It will take an even bolder imagination to transform and develop our present cities and their surrounding regions into functionally efficient, pleasant and satisfying places worthy of this generation's creative dreaming and practical achievements.

SPRAWL: DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT

Summary of the remarks of Messrs. J. W. Wilson and Brahm Wiesman in the opening panel discussion of the National Planning Conference on September 30. Mr. Wilson is Executive Director of the Lower Mainland Regional Planning Board of B.C. and Mr. Wiesman is Director of the Capital Region Planning Board of B.C.

DIAGNOSIS — Summary

by James W. Wilson

The Reasons for Sprawl

The first reason is "the call of the wide open spaces". This is a decoy call of four notes—cheap land, low taxes, few restrictions, and space.

But after a point this idea of wide open spaces is self-defeating for the simple reason that the wide open spaces cannot remain so if too many people appear on the scene. It is a little like the hilarious party game called "Murder" because after a while the whole thing becomes completely absurd.

Another reason is land "dumping". We don't like to permit dumping of commodities either at the international level or locally, but there seems to be no limit to the amount of land which we see fit to dump on the market and wave in the face of every prospective buyer.

Whose fault is all this? It's not the fault of the "wicked" real estate man or the "greedy" land owner. We the people are the culprit because we have failed to see and heed our own interest in the development of our communities.

The Effects of Sprawl

More and more attention is being given in industrial development circles to the value of sound community development. Two quotations from a recent development magazine may interest you.

One, from the community's point of view was: "to attract, you must first be attractive".

The second, from the industry's point of view was: "rare indeed are desirable industries which are anxious to rescue a community from its own lack of foresight".

There is such a thing as industrial sprawl too and it is as unfortunate as residential sprawl. It offsets cheap land and low taxes by such failings as poor water supplies, telephone difficulties, load restrictions on rural routes, expensive deliveries and lack of specialized labour.

Summary

The major charge against sprawl is that it is a waster of resources—human, land and money. It is stupid, ignorant and entirely unworthy of a civilized twentieth century nation.

But the real significance of sprawl is that it is not so much a disease as a symptom of one of two deeper troubles. One is that we are not taking planning seriously. We haven't grasped the fact that we cannot build efficient and beautiful cities as long as our first consideration is the right of the individual to make the greatest possible profit from his own land, regardless. We have failed to realize that the com-

munity itself has rights and needs. As long as this is so, then planning is no more purposeful than writing letters to Santa Claus—even if they are official letters.

The second possible trouble is that there is something wrong with government, which makes effective planning impossible. This is especially true in our metropolitan areas. We forget that government is merely a means to an end and as such must be reviewed and reorganized to see that it is serving its purpose. We very often treat government and especially local government as a sacred cow which may neither be denied nor moved on.

Sprawl is not something which happens to us. It is something we do to ourselves.

TREATMENT — Summary

by Brahm Wiesman

The conference showed that "sprawl" has a somewhat different meaning in different parts of Canada. The proposed treatment for sprawl considers the situation in British Columbia where sprawl is characterized by individual houses or small groups of houses scattered sporadically over a wide area extending for miles from the built up urban area.

The first step in treating this disorderly urban growth is to appreciate that it is costly to the individual and the community and that it offers nothing in living conditions that cannot be improved upon by orderly growth. The second step is for the community and its local and provincial government to want to do something about it.

The most important action required is to provide an alternative to sprawl by way of a positive municipal responsibility to organize compact well-planned and well-served residential areas to attract sprawl builders and sprawl dwellers, and to bring some order into the chaotic search for land and housing. This positive action must be based on a comprehensive physical plan and a financial plan which can bring it into effect.

The effective treatment of sprawl is hampered by the lack of jurisdiction in planning metropolitan areas composed of a number of municipalities. To overcome this obstacle the provincial government must accept the responsibility of providing workable government for these areas so that orderly growth can be achieved.

In accepting responsibility for planning and servicing compact and orderly residential growth, the municipalities must consider the housing needs of all income groups. In some areas, sprawl results from a search for cheap housing and indicates the urgent need to plan for an increased supply of low and moderate rental housing accommodation.

On Coping with Urban Sprawl

by J. W. Oliver,

City Commissioner, Prince Albert, Sask.

Prince Albert, with 21,000 people is one of those average Canadian cities. It suffered a boom and bust period prior to 1915 and another period of deep shadow in the 1930's. Since the Second World War, it has begun to take on the appearance of growth after almost forty years of sitting still.

It has been a fortunate city in that it has had a zoning by-law since 1930; and this by-law was revamped by Professors Bland and Spence-Sales of McGill University in 1950. The City Council is not yet persuaded that a comprehensive planning scheme is necessary.

Prince Albert suffers from sprawl in a few areas and for two reasons only. Some years ago it was the policy of council to sell property indiscriminately. So one house was built on the corner of a block and the next some distance away. Fortunately, this policy is now changed, and growth during the last few years has filled in many of the spaces.

The second reason was the zoning of the Outer Urban Zone, adjoining the Residential Zone, with a minimum site area of one acre. In one area, the result was about a hundred homes scattered over twenty-eight city blocks and now the council is faced with pressure to reduce the site areas to permit a village to grow almost a half-mile from the nearest facilities. We have given up trying to improve this area and are fighting a rearguard action to hold it until growth catches up.

Out of our trials we have learned some lessons:

that of the making of by-law amendments there is no end, and each has more points on which one can be caught than a barbed wire fence;

that a Zoning By-law without a comprehensive scheme is a prescription before the diagnosis;

that a minimum site area in fringe areas of three acres is better than one acre;

that it is a good land policy to sell land only to those people who will make immediate use of the land for purposes within the planning scheme and to hold other city-owned land for future needs;

that it is a bitter struggle for amateurs like myself who are required to do planning to acquire a sufficient competence to make wise decisions;

but that it is still more difficult to persuade the changing personnel of city councils that when political expediency and good planning are mutually exclusive, good planning must win.

One more thing! We have learned that however often we fail as we battle for what we believe to be right, we must be like the old Scot who said:

"I'll lie me down and bleed awhile
And then I'll fight again."

Are Municipal Boundaries Obsolete?

Summary of remarks of P. G. Davies, Q.C., Barrister and Solicitor of Clyde, Alberta, former member of the Royal Commission on Metropolitan Development of Calgary and Edmonton.

Mr. Davies dealt with the question of municipal boundaries mainly in terms of the report of the five-man Royal Commission on the Metropolitan Development of Edmonton and Calgary. The studies of this Commission extended over 1954-56, during which 89 witnesses were heard and 329 exhibits received. The 600-page report dealt with various municipal urban problems of the two metropolitan areas, including population growth, special problems of fringe communities, debt, revenue, expenditure, assessment, taxation, government, industrial development, and local and regional planning. Mr. Davies emphasized the great shift in population to urban living and pointed out that growth had no respect for municipal boundaries. It was implicit from his remarks that the stumbling block in many metropolitan areas was certain of the individual councils which insisted on holding on to authority, despite the crying need for consolidation which would be so much more efficient and would bring tax equality in the entire metropolitan area and simplify the handling of numerous municipal problems.

Mr. Davies pointed out that the five-man Alberta Commission unanimously agreed that the Calgary and Edmonton area boundaries were obsolete, and had recommended, in each case, consolidation into one central city. He illustrated the basis on which the Alberta Commission arrived at its conclusions by establishing certain principles which the Commission felt were applicable to the facts under review. These principles, briefly stated, were as follows:

(1) Where a metropolitan area is in fact one economic and social unit, it is unjust and inequitable that wide variations in the tax base should exist among the local governing bodies which comprise that area.

(2) Where metropolitan area is in fact one economic and social unit, it can ordinarily be governed more efficiently by one central municipal authority than by a multiplicity of local governing bodies.

(3) A city is entitled to growing space and it is necessary that its boundaries should expand into rural municipalities.

(4) Where industry has established itself to a substantial extent immediately adjoining the boundaries of the city and the workers in such industries and their families largely reside within the city, the taxes from such industry should be collected by the city which is called upon to furnish the municipal services arising from the residence of the workers.

(5) Where industrial growth has taken place immediately adjoining or in close proximity to the boundaries of the city, the proper and best suited unit to govern and control such growth is the city.

(6) Where the area immediately adjoining the city has taken on strong urban characteristics, it should be under the

aegis of the City Planning Department in preference to a rural municipal council.

The wide variation in the assessment and taxes within each of the metropolitan areas and the poverty of some of the fringes was due largely to the concentration of the industrial and commercial property. It seemed clear that if a municipal authority were to be solvent and be capable of carrying the municipal services incidental to housing the population that all of the area should have equal access to the tax base. This could only be satisfactorily accomplished in most cases by complete consolidation.

The extensive changes recommended in respect to regional joint planning in each area were immediately put into effect by appropriate legislation in Alberta. Other legislative changes were adopted which have made it possible for the public utilities Board of the Province to order amalgamation in the metropolitan areas of the governing bodies. If and when this is carried out, the number of local governing authorities will be greatly reduced and an equal tax will fall upon the entire metropolitan areas.

EDITOR'S NOTE. Articles on the Alberta Royal Commission Report will be found in *COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW*, September 1956 and December 1956.

Comments on the Conference Discussions

Excerpts from the remarks of Stanley H. Pickett, Urban Redevelopment Officer, Community Planning Association of Canada, at the first session of the National Planning Conference.

Most of us I feel are in agreement with Mr. Wilson's diagnosis of the growth of sprawl. He examined in great detail the Lower Mainland Region and applied his thinking to the national scene. He came up with a very convincing argument. I was particularly interested in the effect of sprawl on industry which Mr. Wilson examined; his sad story of what has happened to some industries locally is one which we see everywhere and which is all too little realized.

After Mr. Wilson, Mr. Wiesman asked us what was the treatment for suicide, believing as he did that sprawl is a disease self-engendered by man. He told us that if we wanted to treat the disease we needed to have a plan; he told us that fundamentally sprawl calls for a solution of the problem of housing; he told us that the provinces should take more responsibility and give more leadership in planning of metropolitan areas and also of regions. I think these are all valuable suggestions, but I think that the session fell short of telling us what we could *do* about sprawl. We were told that we should plan but not what we should plan. There were dark mutterings on the side-lines—the words new towns, satellites and even *Unité d'habitation* were heard. I think this is one matter upon which you might care to ask questions this morning: exactly what do we want to plan to overcome sprawl?

Sprawl and Housing

I think the main fruits of that opening session have been a number of discussions pertaining to housing. It has been said by Professor Stephenson, and others, that we need more and more housing on new land; more housing which is suitable for rent, or, for people with low incomes or moderate

incomes, because sprawl can only be combatted if you can give something better than sprawl, if you can give a good alternative. No one is going to plant himself miles away in the countryside and become a sprawler if he knows a more attractive alternative. It seems to me that the basic requirement is that we construct, not a little more housing, but a lot more housing.

I will give one fact I came across some time ago in the Province of Ontario. In that province in 1951, there were some 35,000 families living in overcrowded accommodation as tenants, paying rent, and earning less than \$3,000 a year. Now those people are potential occupants of rental accommodation—good, decent rental accommodation—at reasonable rent; and yet the scale of provision of that accommodation, because of the lack of demand and the lack of real insistence that it be constructed, is totally inadequate. In the Province of Ontario, there are only about 2,000 homes constructed for rent under the generous provisions of the N.H.A. This inadequacy is seen in varying degree right across Canada and was well brought out in the talk given by Mrs. Hoag.

Housing to Meet Needs

We heard a lot about the necessity of organizing housing to meet the needs of the people. Professor Stephenson told us of the cycle of human life and the importance of producing residential areas, or neighbourhoods, in which this cycle could be completely accommodated. Our present pattern of subdivision—a word which last night someone said we must endeavour to strike out from the vocabulary—does not create a balanced community, in which families who are just married, families with young children, families with older children, elderly people and so on in the great cycle of

life, can be properly and happily accommodated. We heard of the work of Clarence Stein, and I am sure we were thrilled last night to see those very handsome illustrations of Baldwin Hills which Mrs. Oberlander showed in her lecture. Here is a community in which there is a sense of repose. I feel myself that in our communities today—our automobile-frontaged communities—we have a sense of vibrant movement; but we so seldom have a sense of repose, in which atmosphere alone, the full nurture of family life from cradle to grave, can develop and flourish. Professor Stephenson said he was always surprised to recall that Baldwin Hills was in Los Angeles; he thought it was perhaps an unusual locale for such a wonderful example of housing. But for the exigencies of politics and the difficulties of financing, there would be, in a rather unusual place in Canada, something which would put into effect some of the principles of Clarence Stein. There was designed an inward-looking community in St. John's, Newfoundland, which was not based upon the automobile at the front door, but upon the automobile as a servant. This scheme, designed by the architects and planners of C.M.H.C., would have given quiet and repose. I am still hopeful that in that perhaps unlikely locale we may yet see this example of the sort of thing which our speakers have urged us to create.

We must build cities; we must not build at fifteen people to the acre, which is building sprawl. We must build at those moderately high densities which alone can give the environment in which urban life can truly flourish.

Last night, we heard that not only do we need better designed communities, we need better designed houses.

Lack of Local Expression in Design

In the past, in several places in Canada, there has been created a great vernacular, a fine local tradition of design and building. There is, for example, in the Maritimes a very lovely, simple house with a slightly curved mansard roof, which is entirely appropriate to the place and to the life of the people. Secondly, in Quebec—the old city of Quebec and some of the villages and smaller towns of that Province—there are beautiful stone houses which remind us that in the past Canadians have built beautifully, well and wisely. Along the Rideau Canal in Ontario, around the end of the 1830's there was developed a very lovely vernacular in stone—houses which were built after the construction of that masterpiece of military engineering, the Rideau Canal; houses built by paid-off Royal Engineers. Over a broad band of Ontario, you find these country houses, small, beautifully-designed and an example to us all. I would say that with these traditions—and they are indigenous Canadian traditions—it is utterly tragic that the ranch-type home should today be the same in Nanaimo as it is in St. John's, Newfoundland. There are in Canada several completely different ways of living, completely different climates and different topographies. These are not reflected in contemporary architecture. Mr. Warnett Kennedy brought this up last night and I would like to endorse it now. I think it is most important to recapture local expression in design.

The Capital Budget

Mr. Wiesman was the first to raise the question of planning being supported by a program and carried out under a capital budget, worked out for a period of years. There was

a capital budget session which dealt, amongst other things, with details of the very encouraging developments in this City of Vancouver. Capital budgeting is most important, for only with a good plan, a phased program, and a budget carefully worked out in relation to available financial resources, shall we get progressive implementation of planning proposals.

Redevelopment and Sprawl

One or two people have wondered aloud in my hearing exactly how redevelopment in the City of Vancouver tied in with the theme of sprawl. Sprawl is very intimately related to blighted areas. If the blighted areas are cleared, the people are going to have to be rehoused, often on peripheral land. I sincerely hope they will not sprawl on that peripheral land, but that they will be designed onto it and live on it. There is therefore a close relationship between sprawl and redevelopment. This leads me to one thing which has come out of our conference, the need for wholeness of view. You cannot consider a single improvement alone, you cannot even consider the sum of changes in relation to the city alone; you have to consider them in their regional setting. Only by this whole, unified approach shall we achieve anything.

Industrial Location

We heard a lot about industrial location. I cannot say too much about it, because that panel is one which I had to miss. Proper location of industry is vital to the distribution of functions within a region. With good industrial location there must be good location of housing for the people who work in the industries. I do not apologize for repeating what has been said many times, that it is utterly folly to crave for industry in the community and yet turn your back on the people who are going to work in the industry. The attitude of mind which wants industry plus very high class residential areas only, is not realistic and will not succeed in the long run.

Municipal Boundaries

We then considered municipal boundaries. It is my opinion that multiple administrations such as you see in Montreal will have to yield to the sheer pressure of events. I think urban life is so complex, growth problems so formidable, that they can no longer be tackled on the basis of individual municipalities.

We dealt with the sprawl of smaller communities. I should like to touch on one aspect of it which interested me, and that is the question of the sprawling old community. We have many of these in the Maritimes, and no doubt elsewhere, straggling along the shorelines and harbours. They are frequently static in population although they may be quite a size. There are several in Newfoundland, with populations between three and four thousand, where growth is static, or even declining, yet, because of the widely-scattered development, it is impossible for the installation of services to be economic. Possibly the introduction of cultural and social facilities in an endeavour to create a nucleus for the community would engender a certain amount of natural return to the centre, although I think it rather unlikely. This is a difficult problem and I was glad that Mr. Hefferton raised it.

THE CAPITAL BUDGET AND THE URBAN PLAN

with special reference to Vancouver

by John C. Oliver

Mr. Oliver is Works Commissioner and a member of the Board of Commissioners of the City of Vancouver. His paper opened the panel discussion of The Capital Budget and the Urban Plan at the National Planning Conference in Vancouver on October 1, 1957.

The Chairman of the Panel was Controller F. Joseph Cornish, Q.C., of the City of Toronto, and the other participants were: Controller L. C. Parker of Hamilton; C.-E. Campeau, Director of Planning, City of Montreal, and President of the C.P.A.C.; John H. Eassie of the Planning Department, City of Calgary; C. C. McGibbon, Q.C., Chairman, City Planning Board, City of Oshawa.

As a member of your Panel discussing the relationship between planning and the capital budget of a municipality, I have been asked to provide a basis for discussion by describing the processes by which the City of Vancouver draws up a capital budget.

In describing these processes, it should be remembered that while they have proved satisfactory to the City of Vancouver, care should be taken in applying the methods in other municipalities. Differences in size, topography, political and administrative backgrounds and custom are also important factors in deciding on any solution to a local government problem.

Most citizens are familiar with the normal budget of a city. This is a revenue budget which is drawn up to cover the day-to-day operations of the city for one financial year. Included in it are amounts for interest and sinking fund on the city's debt.

A capital budget should detail the monies that the city must borrow or otherwise raise for the construction of the many permanent facilities required in the modern city. Unlike the revenue budget, the capital budget often covers a period of some years rather than a single year. In Vancouver, long-term capital budgets were started in 1945 and have been used ever since. Initially, the City obtained from the Provincial Government special powers to place before the ratepayers a plebiscite authorizing the Council to pass by-laws from time to time to finance capital works to an amount not to exceed \$50,000,000 over a ten-year period. Near the end of the ten-year period, the severe inflation which occurred in the late forties forced some changes, but the experience proved so successful that the City Council obtained an amendment to the City Charter to give the Council power to continue with this type of capital budget. We are at present in the middle of a 5-Year Plan—which is our name for a capital budget—which runs until the end of 1958. This December, a further 5-Year Plan covering the period 1959-1963 will be placed before the ratepayers for their approval.

ADVANTAGES

The advantages of drawing up a capital budget, particularly on a long-term basis, are many:

- (1) *A more efficient organization can be built up*
 - (a) in the design of the various facilities;
 - (b) in their construction.

In many cases, if work can be carried on throughout the year, it pays a municipality to construct many of its own facilities providing it can see enough work ahead to keep the crews employed steadily for a few years.

- (2) *Work can be scheduled more efficiently.*

As an example, if the capital budget provides money for the paving of a certain major street, arrangements can be made to have all the necessary underground work done prior to the paving, sometimes as much as one year in advance. Often the requirements of two or more agencies—civic, governmental or private—can be satisfied by one combined operation if the city can plan its work far enough ahead.

- (3) *The city can borrow money to better advantage.*

If it knows its requirements over a relatively long period, it can take advantage of favourable turns in the market as they occur.

- (4) *It can reduce local pressures.*

If work is done piecemeal, each local area and each pressure group is eager to get its share of the limited funds immediately available.

- (5) *It is easier to do one thorough selling job with the ratepayers every few years.*

DISADVANTAGES

The disadvantages of a capital budget are:

- (1) *It is relatively rigid.*

The City Council has, of course, limited power to vary a capital budget to meet changing conditions, and can place by-laws before the ratepayers at any time during

the budget period. However, regardless of the legal position, the Council has a moral responsibility to spend the monies borrowed under a capital budget for substantially the same purposes and in the same proportions drawn up, as the budget was initially approved by the ratepayers. In addition, the approval of a capital budget often implies that no further borrowings will be requested during the period.

- (2) *It is difficult to foresee all civic requirements for, say, a five-year period.*

The installation of sewers in an area where such installation had not been expected will result in immediate requirements for new schools, parks and street surfacing in the same area. Again, the resurfacing of a street may affect all the underground work on the street, private as well as public. There may be a public demand for some facility under circumstances impossible to foresee.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

It will be seen, from a study of the advantages and particularly of the disadvantages, that the success of a capital budget will depend on a number of factors, notably excellent cooperation between the various civic departments and agencies, and some overall planning of the city's needs. This brings us, of course, to the planning process in Vancouver and its relation to the capital budget.

The philosophy of planning in Vancouver is somewhat different from that existing in many Canadian and American cities. Until 1953, planning in Vancouver was carried out by a Town Planning Commission, which had its own technical staff and presented plans for the approval of the City Council. A Master Plan was prepared in 1927 and major revisions made in it some years later; but, except for the Zoning By-law, the Plan was never formally approved. In many respects, however, it was followed over the years by the various civic departments in presenting their recommendations to the City Council.

In 1953, following a considerable amount of discussion and a report from consultants in planning administration, it was decided to set up a separate Planning Department within the civic organization. The staff of the Town Planning Commission was absorbed into the newly-formed Planning Department, and the Town Planning Commission became an advisory body on major planning issues.

THE TECHNICAL PLANNING BOARD

A vital part of the planning process was the setting up of a Technical Planning Board which, under the chairmanship of the Director of Planning, comprises the

City Comptroller
Corporation Counsel
City Engineer
Building Inspector
Medical Health Officer
Supervisor of Property & Insurance
Commissioner of Finance
Commissioner of Works
Superintendent of Schools
Superintendent of Parks

It will be noted that all members of the Board are permanent officials and that they represent all the departments concerned with the physical development of the City, together with the senior financial and legal officials and the two permanent Commissioners on the Board of Administration. The Board of Administration is the administrative head of the civic administration and is generally similar to the Commission in Calgary and Edmonton.

All reports and detailed planning proposals are the work of the Technical Planning Board and are presented to the Council by the Director of Planning as Chairman of the Technical Planning Board. This means that all planning proposals have been subjected to the scrutiny of operating departments, and that the resources of these departments have been available to the Director of Planning in working out technical aspects of detailed planning proposals.

With the City already committed to the policy of operating under long-term capital budgets, the Technical Planning Board, shortly after its inception, became the obvious body to prepare such capital budgets for the consideration of City Council.

STEPS IN PREPARING THE PLAN

Perhaps the best way of outlining the relationship of planning to the capital budget is to describe the steps being taken to prepare the 1959-1963 Plan.

Early this year, the City Council instructed the Technical Planning Board to draw up a proposed capital budget for the period mentioned. Information available to the members of the Board comprised the following:

(1) The requirements of the various departments. The City Engineering Department, for example, needs to embark on a planned program of replacement of the older water mains in the distribution system.

(2) The broader aspects as covered by three published reports, together with a study at present under way. The three published reports deal with the Plan for the Downtown Area, which was presented to you last night by Mr. Sutton Brown; a plan for the provision of parking in the downtown area; and a redevelopment study of areas suffering from blight to a greater or lesser degree. The first two reports are by the Technical Planning Board as part of a twenty-year development plan for the City, while the Redevelopment Study is by the City Planning Department directed by a committee representing the three levels of government.

In addition, the City Planning Department is providing the technical direction and staff for a metropolitan traffic study in which the other municipalities in the metropolitan area and the Provincial Government are participating. While this study will not be completed until next summer, it is advanced to the point where it is of great value in drawing up the capital budget for the 1959-1963 period.

Initially, the Technical Planning Board asked all civic departments and Boards, both elective and appointed, with the exception of the School Board, to draw up their detailed requirements for the period. At the same time the financial departments of the City were asked to prepare a study of the financial implications of capital budgets of various gross amounts.

The first financial factor to be considered was an estimate of the legal borrowing power of the City. This requires a forecast of the probable increase in the assessment of land and improvements over the period covered by the capital budget. The second factor is the proportion of the revenues of the City which will be required to service a total debt of various amounts over the period.

At this stage the School Board, which is represented on the Technical Planning Board, was asked to estimate its capital requirements over the period. In British Columbia the financing of capital requirements for schools is carried out by the Provincial Government, but the municipalities are required to bear one-half of the carrying charges on the debt so incurred. Consequently, while the school debt is not considered a part of the City's gross debt for determining the legal borrowing limit, it must be considered in estimating the tax burden for fixed charges.

The Technical Planning Board divided the projects submitted in this fashion into two groups: the first comprising the traditional municipal services, and the second group comprising those projects which were of an unusual character or which would require policy decisions from Council. For example, the Pacific National Exhibition, which leases land from the City, has had its capital requirements met by bonds issued by the City, but has undertaken, until now, to meet the carrying charges on such borrowings. This time, the Directors of the Exhibition have asked that the City borrow for the Exhibition as it would for any other civic service, and not require the Exhibition Association to meet the carrying charges of the debt. Obviously this, and similar points of policy, must be determined by the Council before the Technical Planning Board can proceed with a revision of the interim list of requirements. These lists, as submitted to Council, were not reviewed by the Technical Planning Board except to ensure that provision has been made for the estimated increases in costs from the present to the median year of the 1959-1963 period. The interim list as submitted to Council amounted to \$107,000,000 of which \$66,000,000 was for the items in the first section covering the traditional municipal services. The Council, having been told that the estimated legal borrowing limit for the period was \$77,000,000, instructed the Technical Planning Board to review the first section and bring in a revised list of projects having a total estimated cost of approximately \$50,000,000.

The Technical Planning Board then met, discussed the requirements of each department with the department head

concerned if he was not a member of the Board, and brought in a revised plan for this portion of the City's requirements amounting to some \$51,000,000.

The Council, shortly after, discussed the policy aspects of the second group of projects and gave the Technical Planning Board its general instructions in this regard, and set a tentative target of 70 to 75 million dollars for the entire Plan. At the present time, the Technical Planning Board is discussing with the various Boards and departments the second portion of the list, and will be reporting to Council on the *entire* program about the middle of October.

Another problem which faces the Council in regard to the capital budget is that the City cannot spend civic funds to advertise or to promote the passage of the plebiscite which will bring the capital budget into being. It is, therefore, more necessary than ever that the City enlist the aid of all civic-minded groups to hear their suggestions and to obtain their active cooperation in persuading the ratepayers to approve the capital budget. A Citizens Advisory Committee has been appointed consisting of representatives from various organizations such as Ratepayers' Associations, Board of Trade, Local Council of Women, and so on.

The members of this Committee have been furnished with the relevant reports of the Technical Planning Board so that the members of the Committee should be sufficiently conversant with the details of the Plan to be able to assist the Council in its discussions. It is anticipated that the Plan will be approved by the Council early in November and placed before the ratepayers at the civic elections in December.

THE ESSENCE OF PROPER PLANNING

I should like to emphasize again that it is my opinion, as one of the senior administrators in the City, that the essence of proper planning is the closest possible relationship between the Director of Planning and the heads of all other civic departments. When this relationship is sound, all departments take an active part in the planning process and are jointly responsible for it. At the same time, the Planning Department is brought face-to-face with the operating and administrative difficulties inherent in any proposal and with its financial implications.

I trust that this description of the close relationship between the capital budget and planning, which exists in the City of Vancouver, may bring about a fruitful discussion of the subject.

DE QUELLE SORTE DE LOGEMENTS AVONS-NOUS BESOIN?

par Roger Marier

Un discours prononcé au dîner de clôture du congrès de la Section de Québec de l'Association Canadienne d'Urbanisme, Rimouski, le 15 septembre 1957. Monsieur Marier est directeur de la région de Québec, Société Centrale d'Hypothèques et de Logement. Il est B. ès A. (1937), licencié en droit (1940) et licencié ès Sciences Sociales (1942) de l'Université Laval, et M.Sc. (Social Work) (1943) Catholic University, Washington, D.C. M. Marier a été professeur, Université Laval, 1943-51; associate professor, McGill University, 1951-56; chargé d'une mission de recherches par l'UNESCO en Jamaïque, 1952; associé à la SCHL depuis 1956.

Mr. Marier's English summary is on page 171.

On dit du marché des maisons unifamiliales qu'il est solide si les maisons neuves sont tôt vendues. Cette demande de maisons neuves fait l'objet d'un compte officiel spécial. La S.C.H.L. énumère les maisons (unifamiliales et duplex) complétées mais non encore habitées ainsi que le nombre de mois au cours desquels elles restent inhabitées. Cet indicateur révèle que la demande de maisons d'habitation a eu tendance à diminuer, en particulier au cours de la dernière année, s'élevant jusqu'à 15% en mars dernier pour tout le Canada. Dans la métropole de Montréal, l'indice était monté jusqu'à 18 en mai de cette année.

Si nous voulons savoir de quelle demande il s'agit, jetons un coup d'oeil sur le produit, car il y a certainement relation entre le produit et la demande. Les données qui suivent s'appliquent aux logements unifamiliaux construits en vertu de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. Mais elles ne sont pas sans relation avec l'ensemble des logements construits quel que soit leur mode de financement. L'aire moyenne de parquet a eu tendance à augmenter constamment, de 1,091 pieds carrés en 1951 à 1,138 en 1956 et 1,174 pour les trois premiers mois de 1957. La maison a pris des formes de plus en plus dispendieuses, de l'étage et demi au bungalow et au split-level. Elle a voulu être assise sur un morceau de terrain de plus en plus vaste: de 35 pieds de front il y a quelques années à 60 et 75 en 1956-1957. Il s'agit d'une maison qui a fait de plus en plus de place à la fenêtre et qui comporte maintenant cheminée, cuisine moderne avec fourneau et réchaud, réfrigérateur et congélateur à même, éventail pour chasser les odeurs et les fumées, etc.! Le coût estimatif moyen de cette maison est passé de \$10,948 en 1951 à \$14,911 pour les trois premiers mois de 1957, une augmentation qui excède de beaucoup les accroissements combinés du coût des matériaux de construction, des taux de salaires et même des coûts de terrain.

Qui pourrait blâmer les prêteurs d'avoir eu une préférence à consentir des prêts pour une maison semblable plutôt que pour une maison plus dépouillée, plus sobre et moins dispendieuse? L'administration hypothécaire est d'autant plus économique que les prix sont plus élevés, les revenus de ceux à qui on les fait, plus considérables, et partant, moins risqués. Il s'agit de la maison que notre industrie de la construction

a bâtie, sans doute plus profitable à son promoteur par unité, mais surtout parce que le public acheteur la réclamait. Ici nous touchons au dynamisme économique et social qui a fait le marché de la construction résidentielle ce qu'il est.

Ce dynamisme se fonde sur un progrès industriel et économique dont le monde a peu d'exemples et qui offre à tous un pouvoir réel d'achat toujours plus considérable et permet un standard de vie de plus en plus élevé. Il rend possible pour tous et plus fréquentes de nos jours des ascensions rapides et quelquefois spectaculaires dans l'échelle sociale. Il suggère des symboles de succès: dans l'automobile (qu'on choisit pour faire l'envie des voisins) et dans la maison dont le *picture* (du *picture window*) n'est pas, à l'extérieur, la nature ou le jardin, mais à l'intérieur pour l'envie de ceux qui pourraient circuler dans le voisinage.

Evidemment que le standard de vie de la maison 56-57 n'est pas accessible à tous. Cela ne devrait pas vouloir dire toutefois que la demande de l'habitation se limite à ceux qui peuvent se procurer la maison 56-57. L'analyse de l'indicateur des maisons complétées mais non occupées le laisse entendre puisque le taux d'absorption par le marché est plus rapide pour les maisons de moins de \$15,000 que pour les autres.

Mais, il est possible d'inférer la nature et la dimension de la demande d'une façon tout à fait différente. Jetons un regard sur la ville, ses propriétaires et ses locataires. Parmi les premiers, les uns ont pignon sur ces rues aisées qui datent quelquefois d'avant la crise et qui restent associées à des groupes dirigeants et de revenus élevés. Les districts de production 41-51 restent plus modestes: le duplex y occupe une place importante dans la Province de Québec et prend stature d'habitation de famille, et à la fois conserve la notion d'investissement immobilier qui rapporte. La banlieue ouvrière présente le spectacle du chaos, de la flétrissure prématurée. C'est ici que des gens de condition très modeste se sont lancés dans la grande aventure de se construire une maison de leurs mains avec la ressource de quelques économies, du salaire courant et bien souvent du financement usuraire.

Ce panorama représente pour moi une évidence suffisante d'un marché pour la propriété d'un logement unifamilial

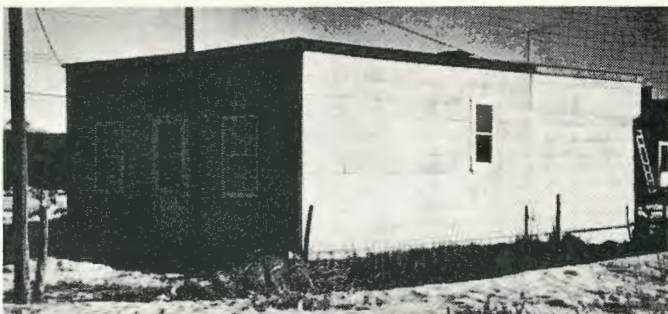


Photo: L'auteur

"la grande aventure . . ."

présent à différents échelons de valeur et désirables à de nombreux étages de l'échelle des revenus. Et il serait bien surprenant que l'aspiration à la propriété ne soit pas vif, même chez des familles de revenus très modestes quand dans notre société tant de respectabilité reste attachée au statut de propriétaire et que les apôtres sociaux et les dirigeants de toutes sortes ont tant insisté sur la vertu sociale de la propriété. Personnellement, je crois que cela tient d'un mythe pour partie tout au moins et surtout pour les groupes de revenus inférieurs. Il reste cependant que la question n'est pas de savoir si cela est sage ou non de devenir propriétaire mais bien qu'il existe une aspiration à la propriété présente dans tous les groupes de revenus et que c'est notre société qui est responsable de l'avoir au moins entretenue. C'est donc dire l'existence de plusieurs marchés certains de l'habitation unifamiliale. Mais de ces marchés nous ne connaissons pas les dimensions. Combien de gens dans tel milieu donné veulent devenir propriétaires, de quelles maisons, à quel endroit, quelles sont leurs ressources d'économies, de revenu, combien sont prêts à investir leur travail, quelles sont les ambitions qu'ils peuvent réaliser. Seule l'enquête pourrait l'établir.

Par ailleurs, il est en fait matériellement possible de construire des maisons qui rencontrent les normes des codes de construction à des prix plus bas que ceux du marché actuel. C'est l'objectif que s'est donné le gouvernement canadien quand il a lancé en septembre 1957 un programme de prêts à l'habitation de l'ordre de \$150,000,000 par l'intermédiaire des agences que sont les prêteurs autorisés en vertu de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. Mais si les caractéristiques de la maison que nous avons décrite plus haut étaient complètement mises de côté, il serait possible de réduire le coût des maisons unifamiliales de plusieurs milliers de dollars. Il serait important d'éviter le luxe, d'utiliser toutes les formes connues d'économie, l'achat de matériaux et la production en gros volumes. Les aires seraient gardées au minimum, quitte à prévoir des expansions possibles—vers le haut (l'étage et demi) ou vers le bas (les fondations déchaussées)—avec les années et comme résultat du besoin et de l'initiative de chaque famille. Ces maisons pourraient quand même garder des factures architecturales et urbanistiques intéressantes. Bien peu de ces maisons seront construites cependant parce qu'elles iraient à l'encontre de la psychologie du marché dit économique que l'on sert à l'heure présente. La collaboration des niveaux de gouvernements, municipal, provincial, et fédéral, pourrait rendre possible de telles productions en vertu de

l'article 36 de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. De tels projets pourraient servir à prévenir le développement massif de secteurs suburbains dont le redéveloppement quelques années plus tard est de nature à requérir des frais beaucoup plus considérables et satisferaient un besoin social certain.

La maison ou l'édifice à loyer bâti en 1956-57 ne présente pas dans sa facture les mêmes caractéristiques, ou du moins pas de façon exclusive, que le marché de la maison unifamiliale: la maison à loyer 56-57 ne prétend pas loger surtout les groupes de population dont la prospérité est en voie d'augmentation qui sont particulièrement sensibles à la mode et aux coûts qu'elle entraîne et en train de monter dans l'échelle sociale. Elle s'adresse à des individus appartenant à des couches de revenu plus nombreuses parce que la psychologie de l'investissement est différente. Le promoteur ou l'acheteur pose un jugement d'affaires: il s'agit d'établir entre l'investissement et le revenu net un rapport profitable: cela reste également possible que les loyers soient au niveau de \$85 par mois ou au niveau de \$175 par mois. L'industrie a cependant des limites vite atteintes puisqu'on calcule que le loyer économique courant ne baisse guère au-dessous de \$85 pour une unité de 2 chambres à coucher à Montréal par exemple alors que les loyers dans certains secteurs centraux de la ville ont encore des niveaux moyens variant de \$25 à \$40 par mois. Il reste que ces loyers produits par l'industrie de la construction en 1956-57 peuvent encore servir des groupes de revenus sensiblement inférieurs à la médiane des revenus familiaux qui s'établit entre \$4,600 et \$4,800 (à Montréal toujours).

Je ne veux pas dire cependant que les caractéristiques de la maison unifamiliale décrites plus haut sont absentes du marché de la maison à logement. Au contraire, il s'est bâti dans les dernières années plus de conciergeries de luxe que jamais, situées pour la plupart dans des endroits de choix près du coeur des villes. Ces conciergeries évoquent un style de vie de bien des façons supérieur en faste, en commodités et en avantages à celui qui est indiqué par les maisons unifamiliales quelque luxueuses soient-elles et situées dans la périphérie. L'existence de telles conciergeries constitue une réponse éloquent à ceux qui prétendent que le centre des villes n'est pas propice à l'habitation et à l'habitation familiale et une dénégation à ceux qui voudraient nous faire croire que le locataire est un personnage moins honorable que le propriétaire.

Il est bien curieux comment le préjugé de la supériorité du propriétaire sur le locataire persiste en société industrielle alors que la propriété foncière n'est plus le symbole de la richesse, ce qu'elle était dans le contexte rural. Au contraire, le statut de locataire, si on le considère de façon rationnelle et si on en dispose pas selon les idées toutes faites et selon un schème de valeurs héritées des générations passées, apparaît comme convenant particulièrement bien aux exigences d'une civilisation industrielle. Le locataire s'accommode mieux que le propriétaire de la mobilité géographique que lui impose le développement des ressources. Celui qui veut améliorer son standard d'habitation et monter dans l'échelle sociale peut occuper une série de logements correspondant graduellement à ses aspirations et à ses moyens sans avoir investi son capital dans une structure rigide de forme et immobile, par définition peu flexible et adaptable. Ceux qui s'achètent une maison "pour la vie" ne réalisent souvent pas que leurs besoins d'espace va varier avec le cycle familial.

MAISONS EN TERRASSE, REGENT PARK SOUTH, TORONTO, un projet d'habitation à loyer modique construit par les gouvernements fédéral et provincial, en vertu de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. Architectes: J. E. Hoare, Jr. et la Société Centrale d'Hypothèques et de Logement.



Ici nous touchons au drame des couples qui se retrouvent seuls dans leur grande maison à 60 ans, à 50 ans; bientôt à 45 ans, puisque les femmes ont tendance à avoir moins d'enfants et plus tôt dans la vie! Il apparaît donc que rationnellement la propriété d'une maison n'est peut-être pas aussi désirable qu'on a voulu le dire ou le croire et nous n'avons pas mentionné les avantages de la location au centre des villes. Pour celui qui peut facilement assumer le coût du transport, préférer la vie en banlieue apparaît comme une question de choix personnel. Certains la préfèrent, même au prix d'une heure et voire deux en temps de transport. Mais il reste des catégories de travailleurs à bas revenus pour lesquels les dépenses de transport acquièrent une importance relative plus grande par rapport à leur standard de vie et à ses éléments de base: la nourriture, le logement, le vêtement.

Mais revenons à l'inventaire, au stock du logement à loyer. Nous pouvons dire qu'un milieu comme celui de Montréal offre une gamme complète de possibilités de loyers du plus dispendieux au plus bas, de celui de construction moderne et conforme aux codes de bâtiments aux logements les plus désuets, les plus primitifs, les plus dangereux pour la sécurité et la santé publique. Et il est d'expérience commune que les taudis vacants ou à louer sont choses bien rares. Ils trouvent toujours moyen d'avoir preneur. On peut donc dire que comme pour la maison unifamiliale, il y a pour le logement à louer non pas un seul marché mais des marchés qui eux-mêmes correspondent à des standards de vie différents.

Il ne manque pas de théoriciens pour dire que le moyen de parer au problème c'est de n'ajouter à l'inventaire que des logements de la meilleure qualité et qu'ainsi les conditions de logement de toute la population se trouveront améliorées en vertu de ce processus qu'on appelle en anglais *filtering down*. Cela aurait des chances de se réaliser si la production dépassait toujours sensiblement l'accroissement de population et si les taudis ou les logements les plus vieux et les plus désuets étaient détruits.

Et un certain nombre le sont naturellement: les vieilles constructions du centre font place à des édifices à bureaux, à des plus grands magasins, à des terrains de stationnement, à

des hôtels, à des grandes conciergeries. Mais le rythme du réaménagement sous auspices privées ne vient pas à bout des taudis. Bien plus, il en suscite parfois d'autres. Surtout, il contribue, laissé à lui-même, à rendre la circulation impossible, à paralyser ainsi les fonctions vitales du coeur des villes et à créer le contresens de la ville à dimensions inhumaines.

La seule solution qui ne fasse pas injure au coeur du citoyen en civilisation industrielle, la seule solution qui ne fasse pas injure à la sagesse, à la prévoyance et à la claire vision de nos administrateurs municipaux, c'est de prendre le problème dans son ensemble, de ré-examiner la distribution des fonctions que remplissent les centres des villes, fonctions administratives, financières, récréatives, commerciales de gros, de détail, fonctions industrielles de circulation et d'habitation aussi, d'en analyser les tendances et les dynamismes et de créer les réaménagements qui les rendront possibles, adéquates. Evidemment que cela coûtera cher. Il ne s'agira cependant pas de réaliser, surtout dans les grandes villes, en un an, en deux ans. Il faudra échelonner l'oeuvre sur de longues périodes d'années et inscrire le réaménagement comme une fonction permanente et principale de nos villes. La situation n'est pas sans analogie avec celle de l'industrie prévoyante qui voit à échelonner la dépréciation de ses immeubles et de ses dépenses capitales sur de nombreuses années. C'est là la voie sur laquelle de nombreuses villes canadiennes se sont engagées et à ces fins se sont mises à l'étude de leurs problèmes grâce à des octrois disponibles en vertu de l'article 33 de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. Des rapports ont été publiés pour Toronto, Vancouver, St-Jean, N.B. et tout dernièrement Halifax. Deux villes, Toronto et Montréal, se sont mises à la tâche grâce à des ententes entre les gouvernements municipaux, provinciaux et fédéral et sont en train de réaliser leurs projets.

Dans la perspective d'un programme énergique de réaménagement les taudis disparaîtront et leurs habitants seront ou bien relogés sur place ou bien relocalisés en d'autres sites.

S'ils sont logés sur place, ce ne sera habituellement pas sous le signe, si légitime soit-il en d'autres circonstances, du

jugement d'un promoteur privé qui chercherait par définition son profit peut-être plus que le maximum d'utilité sociale et publique. On tentera d'utiliser toutes les ressources architecturales, urbanistiques, sociales, pour créer un milieu qui soit en fonction des besoins des familles pour rendre possible à ces familles un style de vie plus conforme à l'idéal collectif. Les plans de ces réaménagements domiciliaires ne seront pas conçus comme des noyaux isolés, mais on s'efforcera de les insérer dans le tissu urbain et ainsi de permettre une nouvelle vie à des paroisses et à des institutions scolaires périlicantes mais tout de même représentant un capital investi précieux.

Si les habitants des taudis sont relocalisés, un soin particulier devra être accordé aux moyens de transport économiques et rapides, à la disponibilité ou à la création d'institutions commerciales, scolaires, paroissiales. Et là encore, il sera important d'insérer les projets dans le tissu urbain environnant.

Ajoutons qu'afin de dévaloriser plus vite le taudis, il est aussi possible d'ajouter, à l'inventaire des logements, des loyers à des prix inférieurs à ceux du marché dit économique en vertu de l'article 16 de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. Cet article prévoit qu'une finance à 90% de la valeur prêteuse peut être octroyée à des groupes sociaux commanditant des compagnies dont les dividendes sont ou bien nuls ou bien limités à 5% du capital versé et payé.

L'initiative privée telle que possible en vertu de l'article 16 de la Loi et l'initiative fondée sur des ententes intergouvernementales aux termes de l'article 36 sont d'autant plus impérieuses qu'on passe des régions métropolitaines ou encore des régions les plus industrialisées comme celles de la Mauricie et du Lac St-Jean, aux nombreuses autres petites villes de la Province. Il faut trouver la raison de l'urgence de cette initiative dans les niveaux inférieurs de revenus qui y existent si on les compare à ceux des régions métropolitaines: la différence peut en être de 20, 35, 50%, suivant les endroits. Le volume de construction de maisons unifamiliales y apparaît alors bien plus modeste proportionnellement bien entendu et son produit plus sobre. De même, la construction de maisons à logements y est rare. Il est vrai que le coût de vie peut être moins élevé dans les petites villes. Mais c'est moins vrai que le coût de construction y soit proportionnellement inférieur. Dans certains cas le coût de construction est plus élevé. Il semble donc que l'absence de construction à logement dans les petites villes n'est pas sans relation avec une combinaison des deux phénomènes: revenus inférieurs et coûts de construction supérieurs ou inférieurs mais non dans la proportion du décroissement des revenus.

Jusqu'ici nous avons parlé des aspects du problème du logement qui se posent à divers étages de l'échelle des revenus et dans la distribution géographique des standards de vie. Le problème du logement du groupe des personnes âgées présente des caractéristiques spéciales. En économie rurale où la maison familiale servait et sert encore à abriter des générations successives, le problème d'un logement pour les personnes âgées ne se posait pas ou ne se pose pas encore. Le problème a commencé de se poser au cours des dernières vingt ou trente années quand les personnes âgées se sont vues difficilement trouver place dans le logement urbain et au budget de la famille urbaine. Cependant, les cas les plus onéreux pour les familles concernées trouvaient dans la solution traditionnelle des hospices pour vieillards, les accom-

modements indispensables. Mais le vieux schème de valeur persiste au-delà de la rationalité et encore aujourd'hui en milieu populaire on affirmera encore que la solution "la fille gardera son père ou sa mère" reste possible. Cela n'empêche pas que les personnes âgées qui ont pu acquérir quelque degré d'indépendance économique préfèrent rester le plus longtemps possible "chez eux" et tenir maison.

Il est possible de réaliser, toujours en vertu de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation, des centres d'habitation susceptibles de satisfaire aux besoins de logement des personnes âgées. Ce qu'il faut c'est tantôt un logement complètement équipé qui permet l'indépendance, tantôt une chambre et la disponibilité de cuisines communes et d'infirmierie comme il en existe dans les hospices. Ces besoins de logement des personnes âgées en couples ou individuellement peuvent ou se succéder ou alterner. Les premières expériences de production de logement pour ce groupe sont actuellement en cours dans Montréal. Le problème du logement des personnes âgées apparaîtra cependant proportionnellement moins vif dans le Québec qu'ailleurs au Canada parce que nous avons plus d'enfants et que le schème de valeurs de la société rurale a ici plus de persistance. Mais notre population âgée augmente en nombre et en longévité pour les mêmes raisons qu'ailleurs.

Depuis trois ans, deux provinces canadiennes ont apporté à ce problème de logement des solutions particulièrement intéressantes. La Saskatchewan s'est dotée d'un réseau de 24 établissements logementaires pour personnes âgées, comprenant 874 unités de logement. Il s'est de même bâti 25 tels projets d'habitations comprenant 492 unités de logement en Colombie Britannique. Les logements se louent de \$25 par mois à \$45 en Colombie Britannique et de \$36 à \$45 en Saskatchewan. On a obtenu ces résultats en se prévalant des dispositions de l'article 16 de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation. En Saskatchewan, l'élan est venu du gouvernement provincial qui a rendu disponibles des octrois aux municipalités qui se prévaudraient de l'article 16 pour fonder des compagnies à dividendes limités pour le logement des personnes âgées; l'octroi provincial sert à couvrir partie du 10% de capital nécessaire. En Colombie Britannique, les oeuvres sociales du secteur privé ont pris l'initiative et leurs réalisations ont été facilitées par des octrois provinciaux au même effet.

De qui viendra l'initiative de procurer aux personnes âgées du Québec les logements qui s'imposent. Il est dans la logique de l'organisation et de la philosophie sociale du secteur de bien-être chez nous que l'initiative soit prise par les communautés religieuses et les oeuvres sociales qui se sont préoccupées des vieillards, comme il est normal qu'en Saskatchewan l'initiative repose sur les municipalités qui administraient déjà un réseau d'hospices pour vieillards et pour nécessiteux. Mais le secteur québécois des oeuvres charitables et sociales aura-t-il la vitalité et l'imagination d'assumer cette responsabilité. Je me suis laissé dire qu'une oeuvre sociale pour personnes âgées reçut, il y a pas tellement longtemps, un don d'un million de dollars pour lui permettre de s'établir dans des édifices solides et appropriés et continuer l'oeuvre bien commencée. C'est alors qu'on représenta aux dirigeants que les dispositions de la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation leur permettait d'envisager la perspective d'un centre d'habitation pour personnes âgées pour une somme de \$10,000,000, ce qui aurait voulu dire, de 1,500 à 2,000 unités de logement pouvant comprendre des logements pour des

couples, pour des personnes seules, même des chambres simples et des pièces communes. Apparemment, les dirigeants de cette oeuvre n'ont pas pu se faire à l'idée de commander une entreprise aussi considérable ni d'élargir ni d'adapter aux circonstances présentes leur définition de fonctions. Résultat, l'oeuvre dont il s'agit aurait financé sans aide une construction de \$1,000,000 et serait en mesure de faire travail double à comparer à ce qu'elle faisait auparavant, soit de s'occuper de moins de 200 personnes âgées.

En somme, aux divers standards de vie qu'on retrouve dans les groupes de population correspondent plusieurs marchés de l'habitation, comportant chacun des caractéristi-

ques différentes. La satisfaction de tous les besoins de logement reste possible mais elle implique des initiatives et des responsabilités partagées. L'initiative et la responsabilité des groupes sociaux pour éveiller l'attention, analyser les problèmes particuliers à chaque milieu. L'initiative et la responsabilité de l'entreprise privée à laquelle reste un important champ d'action. L'initiative et la responsabilité des gouvernements locaux, des gouvernements provinciaux et du gouvernement fédéral aboutissant à des ententes à l'occasion de chaque problème. La Société qui administre la Loi Nationale sur l'Habitation s'efforce d'être à la disposition de tous avec sa compétence particulière et limitée.

What Kind of Housing Do We Need?

Synopsis of a talk given by Roger Marier, Director, Quebec Region of C.M.H.C., to the closing dinner of the Quebec Division conference of CPAC at Rimouski, September 15, 1957.

Most of my observations apply to those Quebec centres growing fastest; something has to be said about smaller places as well, and about the needs of special groups like the aged.

The housing market most talked of is for single family houses on ample lots and well equipped. This type seems to embody a popular ideal—the picture window to incite envy in the passer-by! But many cannot achieve this current assertion of ego or mark of success; in our cities the dwellings of past decades serve most of the “unsuccessful”, some in their duplexes, others in home-made shanties turned prematurely gray. At all these levels, respectability still requires home-ownership in our society; yet there are several distinct markets and modes of house production. Our statistics refer mostly to the first, or merchant builder's market. The new N.H.A. arrangements are aimed at the lowest cost compatible with that market; and it should be possible to allow the buyer to finish off additional rooms himself.

Housing built by agreement among local, provincial and federal governments under Section 36 of the N.H.A. is for another equally evident constituency. Conventional rental housing offers yet another type of unit, not usually symbolising a stepping-stone to higher social status but rather conditioned to produce the greatest return to the landlord. Given this aim, a greater range of rent levels should be financially acceptable in new rental housing than does in fact occur; recently, apartment has very often meant luxury apartment, as if the landlord were thus defending his social virtue.

Oddly enough, renting would seem the sensible housing arrangement in an urban-industrial community with high mobility of persons. Social climbing ought also to be possible through rented places. Adaptation to changing family size and way of life should also be easier for tenants. For many, the costly journey to work could be cut by renting. In rental housing, too, there are many markets, corresponding to various standards and values in living.

One pretext for concentrating new houses in the luxury market is that this is the way to make older ones “filter

down” to the point where the worst houses are no longer wanted at all. In practice, this does not work reliably; other changes in the city would make its spontaneous working unsatisfactory.

The only way to approach the urban housing problem is to approach the whole of it, in the context of all the city's other functions. For this we must know far more than we do of the dynamics of values outside the range of any one building market. Rebuilding cities to satisfy all these values will take money and effort sustained over extended time—such as indeed the great private corporations spend. Studies and programs now launched in half a dozen of our major cities are a beginning; they point not to little oases of slum clearance, but to ways of buttressing the fabric and institutions of the whole surrounding metropolitan city. Commercial, eleemosynary and governmental initiatives are all called for if this metropolitan renaissance is to come to pass. This is just as true in fast growing small cities, where differences between family income and building cost are if anything more acute.

Elderly persons suffer particularly from our pre-occupation with building the familiar three-bedroom house: it leaves no room (or too much) for them, yet it teaches that the alternative, the country “Home”, stands for social failure. In several Provinces, and very recently in Montreal, small dwellings have been built under N.H.A. exclusively for old people—nearly 1,500 across Canada. Various public and private sponsors and benefactors are contributing. In Quebec, the religious and welfare communities may be looked to; where a million dollars of their money built an institution for less than 200 old people, it might have been the lever to create self-contained dwellings for 1,500 to 2,000 of their kind.

There are thus several distinct purchase and rental markets for housing, reflecting various economical and social circumstances and purposes. For each market there are different appropriate instruments and sponsors. The national housing agency, within its limitations, tries to be at the disposal of all.

PLANNING FOR RURAL LAND USE

Rural Planning in the Edmonton District Area

by R. Norman Giffen

The objective of rural planning must be the optimum use of resources, both human and natural. The attainment of the optimum use of land requires a thorough knowledge of its capabilities and limitations. In the past generations, this knowledge could only be acquired by experience. Unfortunately, in the early settlement of our prairies a large number of useful lifetimes were wasted in the attempt to obtain a living from land which, because of the nature of its soil and topography, could not support a farm family even at a subsistence level. Other land which was quite productive has deteriorated under a type of farming which was not suited to the inherent qualities of soil and climate. A tremendous amount of research has been done by both the Federal and Provincial Departments of Agriculture, and information is now available to the individual farmer as to what he may expect from his particular farm area and what steps he must take to achieve a permanent farm enterprise.

A form of rural land-use planning commenced in the Edmonton district some years ago with the establishment of agricultural service boards within each of the rural municipalities. These boards are local advisory bodies responsible to the municipal councils. Their duties are to advise with respect to the organizing and directing of weed control and soil and water conservation, to assist in the control of disease in livestock, to advise and assist in proper land utilization, and to promote and develop any agricultural policies to meet the needs of the municipal districts.

The operation of these boards depends upon the basic studies carried out by specialized agricultural agencies working within the Provincial and Federal Departments of Agriculture: for example, the Soil Survey Reports which give an inventory of the soil resources in the area, and the University of Alberta bulletin entitled *Cropping for Profit and Permanency*, which outlines the principles that must be taken into account by the farmers in planning their permanent farm program. These are two of many useful studies which are designed to help the District Agriculturist and the Field Supervisor in extending advice to the individual farmer.

The Author

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Running parallel with this type of rural planning and identical in aim but broader in method and scope, is the land-use planning of the Interim Development Boards of the various municipalities, which are responsible for preparing, with the technical assistance of the Edmonton District Planning Commission, General Plans for the rural municipal districts. To date, these Planning Boards have been mainly concerned with the orderly control of the urban invasion of their territory.

Planning for agricultural land has been for the most part negative and protective. However, the Edmonton District Planning Commission staff began to plan for the development of rural land with the preparation of a *General Plan for the Municipal District of Stony Plain*. This is the first of the plans for rural municipalities, and is the basis for this article.

It is the purpose of a general plan, as defined in Alberta, to provide for the orderly and economic development of all the land within a municipality. Economic is used here in the long-term sense of continued productivity, and of maintenance of soil fertility and along with it, municipal and individual solvency. Therefore, to determine the economically optimum use of land, an attempt must be made to assess all the factors which will influence this use. The analysis of the existing land-use, soil, topography, existing agricultural activities, the economics of marginal areas, and the present relationship of human settlement to public improvements will form the foundation of the rural land-use plan.

Once having determined the optimum land-uses, it is possible to estimate the maximum rural population. Then an examination of physical and social facilities—for example, the network of roads, schools, libraries and churches that will be required to serve this population—may be carried out. In addition, the special land-use needs of the metropolitan population of Edmonton are embodied in the plan. Such uses as commercial development along highways, industry, small holdings, lakeside recreation, and cottage areas are considered in their relationship to the overall plan for the municipality of Stony Plain.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE RURAL LAND-USE PLAN

The factors which influence agricultural land-use in the Stony Plain part of the Edmonton district have been examined. It is found that certain factors affect the whole rural area equally. The climate, for instance, is generally



Rolling farmland in the Grey-Black soil area.



Natural pasture in the Mixed-General use area.

characterized by warm, bright, sunny days in the summer, and cold, bright, dry days in the winter. Also, precipitation is a common factor ranging from 15 to 20 inches per year in all parts of the district. Other factors vary. Soils, even though they are mostly all of glacially-laid parent material, have developed differently because of variations in drainage, texture, and vegetation. Three soil zones are present: the Black, which is the most productive; the Grey-wooded, which is the poorest soil; and the Grey-Black, which is intermediate between the other two soils. A comparison of these three zones is given in *Table 1*.

Topography has been a major factor influencing the pattern of settlement and roads within these three different soil zones.

TABLE 1—Productivity Factors, Soil Zones, M.D. of Stony Plain

	BLACK	GREY-BLACK	GREY-WOODED
Surface Soil	8-10" black 40" plant feed- ing range	2-5" dark brown to black 2-5" brown to light brown	Thin dark sur- face greyish brown sub-sur- face - heavy textured sub- soil
Nitrogen Content surface foot	.4 to .5%	.3%	.1%
Organic Matter and mineral plant food content	high	fairly high	low
Drainage	well drained	fairly well drained	variable
Texture	loam	loam	loam
Topography	level to gently rolling	gently rolling to rolling	gently rolling to hilly
Productivity of soil	good to very good	fairly good to good	poor to fairly good

Existing Land-Use

Table 2 indicates the present farming situation in the Stony Plain area compared by zone.

Mixed farming predominates; the farmers use livestock to market most of their cereal crop.

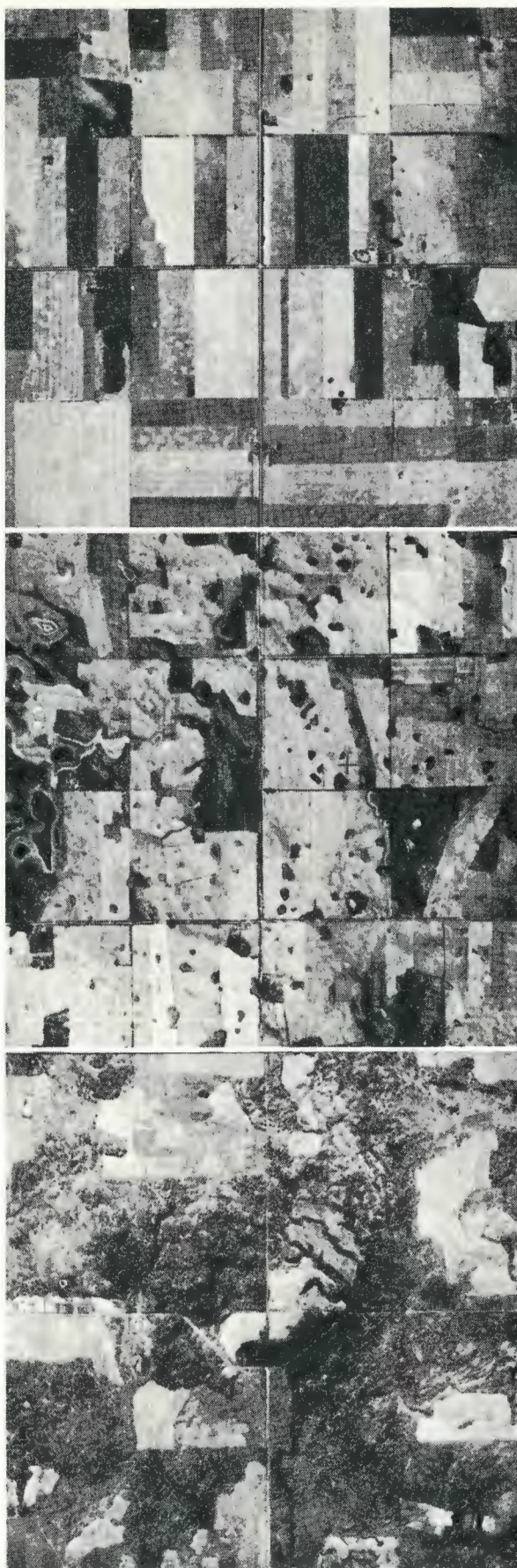
The Optimum Land-Use Pattern

On the basis of the data obtained from the foregoing examinations, a soil rating is evolved. This rating is based on a method developed by the Alberta Soil Survey from the Storie system of soil rating, with modifications to fit our Alberta conditions. The schedule of factors used in the rating of the Stony Plain soils were as follows: (1) soil zone; (2) texture; (3) topography.

TABLE 2—A Comparison of Existing Farming in the Three Zones

	Black	% Total Occupied Acreage	Grey- Black	% Total Occupied Acreage	Grey- Wooded	% Total Occupied Acreage
Total occupied acreage	149,495		165,313		115,428	
Total improved acreage	103,315	69%	94,588	57%	33,908	29%
Field crops acreage	75,476	51%	67,175	41%	24,755	21%
Fallow acreage	18,535	12%	17,458	10%	5,408	4%
Hay and Fodder crops acreage	8,692	6%	9,097	6%	4,995	4%
Natural Pasture acreage	28,730	19%	41,233	24%	64,319	57%
Total Cattle Milk Cows	6,766 3,662		7,230 3,661		4,655 2,279	
Swine	10,320		12,052		4,879	
Poultry	120,519		77,067		35,926	

Source: 1951, Census of Canada, Census Sub-Divisions 519, 520 and 521.



A

An aerial-photographic comparison of the land-use pattern in the three soil zones. Alberta Crown copyright. Photography by the Photographic Survey Corporation Limited.

A. Black.

B. Grey-Black.

C. Grey-Wooded.

B

C

A rating schedule is used which gives equal weight to the above factors and their effect upon the relative productivity of the various soil areas within the Stony Plain municipality. The soil rating is then applied to a Utilization Table which has eight categories beginning with the very good to excellent arable land, and running down to the category of poor to fair pasture.

The Agricultural Land-Use Guide

In preparing this guide we have used the available information and advice from the respective agricultural agencies with regard to the proper practices of farming necessary under the conditions prevailing on soils with a particular utilization rating. The proper use of land is the basic premise in the whole scheme of farmland resource conservation.

The land-use guide has the following classes: (1) mixed-grain; (2) mixed-general (grain, livestock); (3) mixed-general (livestock, grain); (4) mixed-livestock; (5) livestock-grazing.

Each of these classes contains recommendations which will allow the farmer to plan his farming pattern so that each acre will be used to its best advantage, and so that the fertility of the soil will be maintained or improved if need be. It should be clear that farmers in the different areas must have different-sized farms, must produce different crops, must have varying livestock populations, and must use different management techniques if they are to secure the most from their land without causing permanent deterioration. It is also clear that farmers within any one area will usually have a choice regarding size of farm, types and varieties of crops, livestock kept, and details of farming practice. When an area is considered as best adapted to one type of farming, it does not mean that all the farmers must, or even should, farm the same way.

A comparison of present and recommended land uses is made, using a sample of 50 farms from each of the three soil zones. The results are clearly indicated in *Table 3* and indicate that there is a large gulf between land-use today and the recommended use which is considered necessary to conserve the farm resources.

The grey-wooded soil zone offers special problems of land-use, not only because it is still a pioneer area and the soil is of a quality which requires special methods to farm it successfully, but also because it is an area which is as yet sparsely settled. Consideration is given to the problems of municipal financing of services for the present population. A comparison is made of the rather "fat, sleek" black soil zone financial conditions, and the "rough and ready, hole-in-the-seat-of-the-pants" conditions existing in the grey-wooded zone. A possible solution is offered to correct the imbalance of these finances. A selection of new areas for cultivation is suggested along already-improved municipal roads, in an effort to increase the assessment base for the services already

being provided. This selection is made from the information available; it is possible that a somewhat different selection would be made from a more accurate and complete survey. The method used, however, suggests a possible means of planning for this problem area.

The general conditions which are needed to ensure some degree of success from farming in the grey-wooded soil area are set out, which are:

- (1) sufficient capital to clear the land and begin the improvement of the soil;
- (2) sound agricultural practice, with emphasis on the need to improve soil productivity;
- (3) the availability of year-round road access to market.

POPULATION AND COMMUNITY PATTERN

Until now, the plan has been concerned with a tabulation and consideration of the land resources of the area. Certainly the proper use of land is dependent upon the nature and strength of the human resources available—that is, the farmer, his family, and his community.

The long-term planning of the municipal district of Stony Plain is dependent upon an estimate of the future rural population. The agricultural land-use guide provides the basis for such an estimate. The various classes specify an optimum farm size and also an estimate of the man-units of labour required for each farm. With this basic information an estimate can be made of the eventual rural population when the full agricultural potential of the land is realized.

To determine the nature of the community structure of the rural municipality it is necessary to conduct a survey of each known focal point, whether town, village, hamlet, or just a rural crossroads. This survey should yield enough information to define the area of influence of the major businesses, and the professional and social and cultural functions of each of these focal points. The survey of Stony Plain shows that the existence of separate communities is dependent upon a great variety of factors. The pattern of the first settlement, the national, ethnic, and religious groupings, the limits of market areas, the factor of isolation, have all played their part in the formation of the rural neighbourhoods. But this is a changing pattern which is being modified by such factors as modern, high-speed transport and centralization of schools. However, the results of the survey do show that there are certain essential institutions in the country neighbourhood which resist any trend to centralization, namely, the elementary school, the general store, the community hall, the church and the post office. The human desire for individuality and close personal relationships, along with the desire of parents to keep their younger children near home, would seem to require that the smaller country neighbourhoods should remain. We must, therefore, consider them as a vital element in the planning of public works, schools and social services by regional and provincial agencies.

It is not the intent of the plan to lay down precise and comprehensive prescriptions for fields in which others are more experienced and qualified. Illustrations are shown of how the materials of the plan may be used by school and library authorities in preparing sound policies for their services. In considering future road construction plans, special emphasis is placed on the need for inter-municipal



An undeveloped sandy beach area, Lake Wabamun.

connections. Reference is made to a study by a special committee of the Edmonton District Planning Commission, which is considering a regional road system.

THE METROPOLITAN IMPACT

As already mentioned, the major work of the Stony Plain Interim Development Board has been to control the urban invasion of the rural area. This plan analyses the main effects of the metropolitan impact and outlines the methods for absorbing this impact in a sound land-use plan for the rural municipality.

In close proximity to Edmonton the pressures for urban development are felt most directly. But this development is already controlled by an *OUTLINE GENERAL PLAN* of metropolitan Edmonton which has been accepted and enforced by the municipal members of the Edmonton District Planning Commission. This *OUTLINE GENERAL PLAN* defines areas for development and regulates the uses permitted within the particular areas.

The *GENERAL PLAN* of the rural municipality of Stony Plain deals with urban development under a number of main sections. These are: industrial development, small holdings, highway services, resort and recreational development.

TABLE 3—Farm Land Use—Proposed and Actual, Three Farm Zones

Soil of Farms	Black		Grey-Black		Grey-Wooded	
	Pro- posed	Actual	Pro- posed	Actual	Pro- posed	Actual
Practice—as % of Cultivated acreage						
Grain	44.4%	64.3%	44.4%	57.2%	54.2%	57.7%
Fallow	11.2%	30.9%	11.2%	30.2%	nil	17.9%
Tame Pasture, Legumes and Grasses	44.4%	4.8%	44.4%	12.2%	45.8%	24.4%

Source: W. E. Bowser and A. G. McCalla: *Cropping for Profit and Permanency*, University of Alberta, 1950.
Edmonton District Planning Commission Surveys— July, 1955.



Moonlight Bay, Lake Wabamun. A favourable site for public beach development.

Industrial Development

The municipality of Stony Plain has two kinds of industries to plan for:

- (1) those which are directly adjacent to the urban boundaries of Metropolitan Edmonton; and
- (2) those which are beyond this metropolitan area because of certain basic locational demands of a particular industry: for example, the steam power plant on Lake Wabamun at the western end of the municipality.

The Stony Plain Interim Development Board co-operates with the Edmonton District Planning Commission in examining the various industries, to ascertain any problems which might be created by their location, and to outline measures of control which are considered necessary. The plan also examines various areas of the Stony Plain municipality to study their possibilities for industry.

Smallholdings

Small parcel subdivision is common to all the rural municipalities of the area. The problems which arise in controlling these are of mutual interest to all municipal districts. A special Committee of the Edmonton District Planning Commission has studied the problem and has submitted a report. This report has been the basis for the policy established for smallholdings within the plan. The individual municipality examines proposals for this type of development on the basis of the standards set forth in the report.

As this use is of a semi-rural nature, it has a close affinity to the rural land-use plan. Such problems as weed control, road construction and schooling, have to be weighed to determine whether it is economically advisable for the municipality to allow the proposed development.

One of the major problems in dealing with smallholdings is the consideration of a minimum size of parcel. The definition of a smallholding requires that the holder have sufficient area to enable him to augment his normal living by using the land agriculturally. Since under our present economic conditions this is not necessary, there is a demand for smaller parcels.

The plan meets this demand by considering a category of country estate parcels, which do not have to be on good agricultural land or have the minimum area of arable land, but must be located in areas which have scenic qualities in keeping with this type of development. Special recognition is given of course to the problems of providing for water supply and sewage disposal.

Highway Services

The highways are subject to an ever-increasing load of traffic, and, with the expansion of Edmonton, the pressures are very strong for development along the highways at the entrances to the City.

In order to protect the highway and to keep it safe and efficient for its primary function of carrying traffic, the municipality of Stony Plain has adopted the "Limited Access Highway Regulations" prepared by the Edmonton District Planning Commission. These regulations are based on three principles:

- (1) that only services essential to, or dependent upon, highway traffic should be permitted; these include service stations, garages, tourist camps, motels, roadside restaurants, and refreshment stands;
- (2) that commercial zones consisting of a group of highway commercial developments should be established only at an interval of at least 2 miles, unless modified by topography or some special circumstances;
- (3) that these commercial zones should have limited access to the highway by means of a service road.

Resort and Recreation Development

The increase of leisure time because of a shorter work-week for the urban worker, plus the improvement in the means of transportation, is creating a large demand for summer cottage development, picnic sites, parks and lakeside resorts. This type of development, to be adequate, must meet the demands of both private and public interests. The plan examines in detail the potential of Lake Wabamun, the largest lake in the district. Other areas not yet developed are also studied. Since the need for public beaches, although exceedingly urgent from a long-term viewpoint, does not make itself felt as immediately as does private development, special emphasis is given to the analysis of likely locations for this use.

GENERAL PLAN RECOMMENDATIONS

Finally, the Stony Plain report proposes the specific measures needed to carry out the proposals of the GENERAL PLAN. Recommendations are made as to the action necessary by the Stony Plain municipal council.

Certain of the proposals are such that immediate action in the form of the passing of a by-law will implement them. Others, because of their long-term nature, may be adopted by resolution to form a basis of municipal aims and policy.

The Edmonton District Planning Commission has the opportunity to make a unique contribution in the long-term planning of the rural municipalities. The various public service agencies are working individually toward the common goal of the establishment of a permanent and economically healthy rural community. The GENERAL PLAN for each municipality and the overall plan for the Edmonton District area can be the framework for the very necessary, effective co-ordination of these efforts.

PLANNING FOR CORNER BROOK

Canada's Newest Planning Legislation in Action

by Stanley H. Pickett and J. T. Allston

EDITOR'S NOTE. Newfoundland's URBAN AND RURAL PLANNING ACT has some unusual features. It requires a flexible plan, an outline of by-laws or regulations needed for implementation, a phased program of development by both public and private developers, and an estimate of capital expenditure on public works related to the financial capacity of the municipality.

The first operative plan under this Act is that for the City of Corner Brook. We feel that an account of planning under this legislation in an area having some unusual problems of political organization will be of general interest. The second part of the article will be printed in the next issue of the REVIEW.

The site on which the city of Corner Brook stands is worthy of another Naples. The Bay of Islands is divided into three arms, the southernmost of which, Humber Arm, runs twenty-five miles inland from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, cutting between the Blow-Me-Down Mountains on the south and the North-Arm Mountains on the north. The city of today stretches south-eastwards along the shore of Humber Arm from the point where the Humber River, after cutting its spectacular course through a mountain gorge, discharges into the Arm. The topography of the land surrounding this great fjord is, as with all fjords, steeply rising hills with very small areas of flat land between them. The physical growth of the city has always been constricted by a topography which also imposes limitations on the development of a seaport, notably the absence of anchorages in the exceptionally deep bay.

HISTORY OF GROWTH

When the great navigator, Captain James Cook, sailed into the Bay of Islands in the summer of 1768 the Humber Arm was uninhabited. Captain Cook did not allow himself the frivolity of expressing his impressions of this magnificent bay, being at the time engaged on a hydrographical survey for the Governor of Newfoundland. By the Treaty of Versailles in 1783, the west coast of Newfoundland was included in an extension to the French Treaty Shore of 1713. The Treaty, whilst recognizing English sovereignty, guaranteed fishing rights to the French, including the right to land to cure fish. Any permanent settlement which might have interfered with the French Treaty rights was prohibited.

The Authors

Mr. Pickett is Urban Redevelopment Officer of CPAC. From 1953 to 1956, he was Director of Urban and Rural Planning for the Province of Newfoundland. Mr. Allston, who came from England to the Newfoundland planning staff early in 1954, succeeded Mr. Pickett in 1956.



Photo: Canadian Pacific Air Lines Limited

Corner Brook Townsite, 1947.

It is therefore not surprising that settlement took place slowly, and it is recorded that in 1800 there were only two families permanently settled in the Bay of Islands.

The first community developed at Summerside on the north shore of the Humber Arm, but it was not long before Birchy Cove, later to be renamed Curling, after one of its first rectors, became the chief settlement of the area and the seat of the magistrate. In 1898 the Reid Company, which was constructing the trans-island railway, pushed forward from the recently established divisional headquarters at Humbermouth, and reached Curling. In the last decade of the Nineteenth Century and the early years of the Twentieth, Curling was an important centre of the herring fishery and had a population of more than twice that of all other settlements in the area combined.

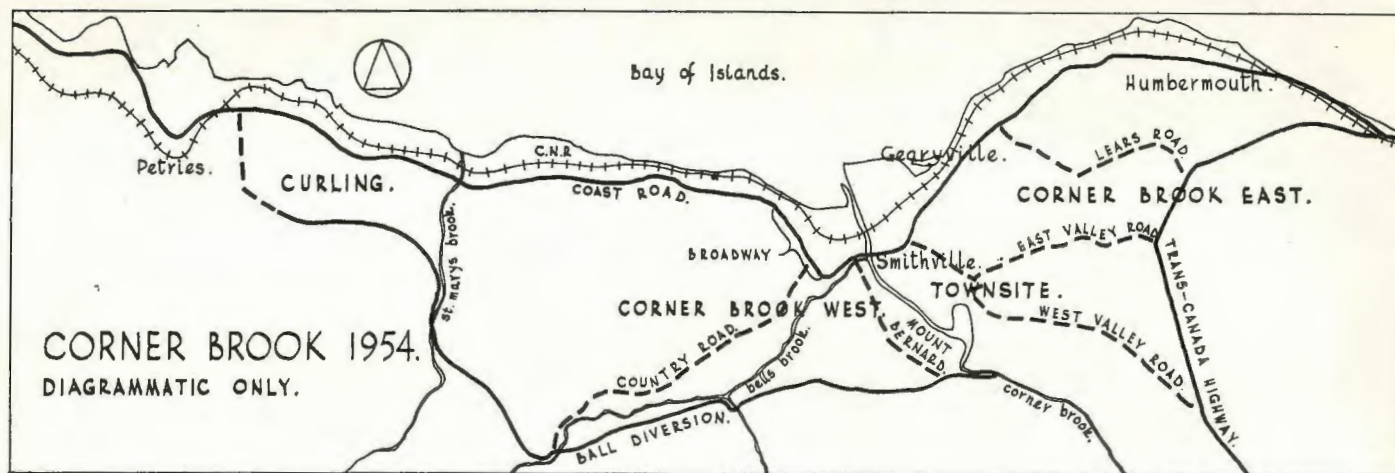


FIGURE 1. Diagram showing areas and places mentioned in the text.

The industrial potentialities of western Newfoundland were appreciated from the early days of the Century. The establishment and development of industry in Corner Brook was a striking example of British industrial enterprise on the largest scale, for not only were the huge paper mills built from 1923 to 1925, but the largest hydro-electric installation on the island was constructed at Deer Lake, thirty miles away. To obtain water to drive the turbines, dams were constructed at Grand Lake and a canal dug to take water from the lake to the penstocks. It may be mentioned in passing that the Deer Lake hydro-electric plant now not only supplies power for the pulp and paper industry, but also electricity for the city of Corner Brook and for several other towns and settlements in central and western Newfoundland.

The pattern of growth which followed the establishment of the paper mill is not unknown elsewhere in Canada. The company townsite was constructed on relatively flat lands between the Corner Brook and the hills. It was well planned—Thomas Adams was one of the consultants—with streets following the contours of the ground and with attractive two-storey houses well located on those streets. The plan also included a shopping centre, a small park area in the centre of the town, and proper provision for sewers and water supply. Landscaping was encouraged from the outset and today, in its maturity, the townsite has an air of urbanity which is often missing from more recent company towns.

On the fringes of the townsite, it was a different tale indeed. The surrounding land is very steep, the hills are rocky with very little soil. There was no control of building and it is not surprising that fringe settlements grew up both to the east and west of the town centre. To the east, the settlement was mainly residential. Houses were built off narrow paths leading directly from the shore-line up the steepest part of the hills. Subdivision was elementary. There was no plan whatever. Neither were there any provisions for utilities or for urban services. To the west the story was similar, except that along the road leading from Corner Brook to Curling, at a point as near the mills as possible, there developed a considerable shopping area known as Broadway, an area which even today contains the majority

of the retail stores in the city. Behind Broadway, the houses rose from the rocks in confused abundance, some clinging to the hillside and others running back along the valley of Bell's Brook inland from the Humber Arm.

GROWTH OF MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION

The townsite was of course controlled by the Company, originally the Armstrong Whitworth Company, then International Paper Limited and since 1938 Bowater's Newfoundland Pulp and Paper Mills Limited. The townsite was therefore not incorporated under the *Local Government Act* of Newfoundland. Corner Brook West was incorporated as a town in 1942 and was the first municipality in Newfoundland outside the city of St. John's. Corner Brook East was not incorporated until 1948. Further west, separated from Corner Brook by a great rock escarpment stands the old established town of Curling, which was incorporated as a municipality in 1947.

In a small area of about sixteen square miles there were, therefore, three incorporated municipalities and a company townsite. There was little experience of local government administration in Newfoundland and money for municipal purposes was scarce. It is not surprising that these municipalities found the going hard indeed. Nevertheless a great deal was achieved in the provision of simple municipal services, notably proper organization of garbage collection and a gallant attempt to maintain the completely inadequate system of streets. With the exception of the townsite, water and sewerage were not available until 1951, when the Government of Newfoundland established the Water and Sewerage Corporation of Greater Corner Brook which has raised bond issues to the amount of 4 million dollars and has installed water supply and sanitary sewers throughout the whole area, with the exception of the two extremities, the west part of Curling and Humbermouth. The success of this area-wide Corporation led to increasing interest in the possibility of municipal amalgamation of the whole area. The advantages were obvious: the centralization of administration, the provision of adequate technical staffs, the more efficient use of equipment and materials and the possibility of utilizing the proceeds of industrialization to meet the needs of the whole area. Offsetting these considerations

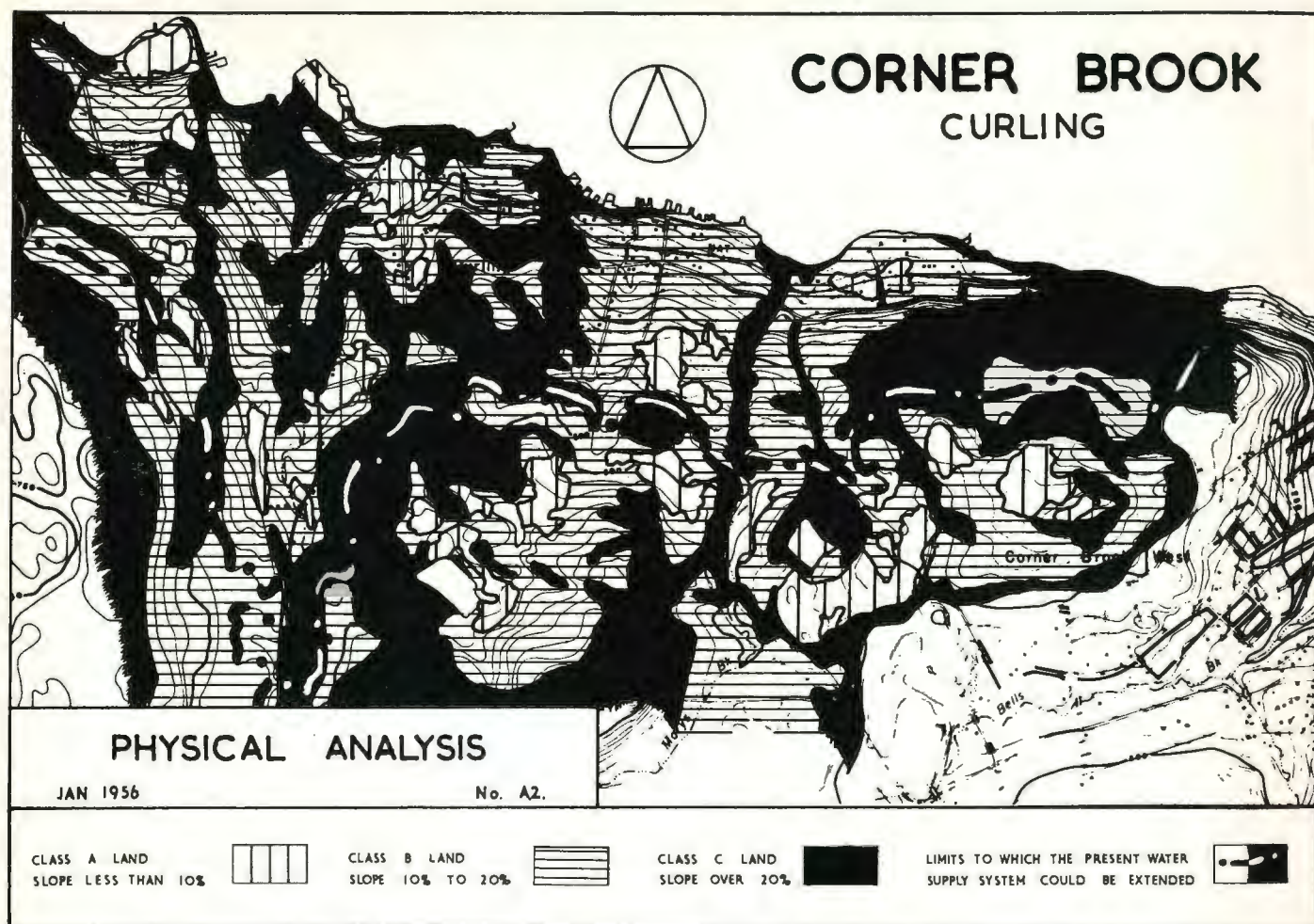


FIGURE 2. CURLING—Topographical Analysis. Scale $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches to 1 mile approximately.

there was the desire for continued local autonomy. The Bowater Company was prepared to relinquish control of its townsite and supported the idea of municipal amalgamation. The Community Planning Association of Canada was instrumental in calling a series of meetings at which the many questions involved were furiously debated. The Government of Newfoundland decided that a referendum should be held to obtain the wishes of the people, and in February 1955, the people of Corner Brook voted by a comfortable majority to enter upon an amalgamated system of government on 1st January 1956.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLANNING IN THE AREA

The first planning activity in Corner Brook other than that involved in the development of the townsite began in 1951, when the Water and Sewerage Corporation of Greater Corner Brook, as one of their first tasks, asked Professors Bland and Spence-Sales of McGill University, Montreal, to report upon urban development in the Greater Corner Brook area. The report submitted by the consultants "covers a survey of urban conditions; proposals for the future development of the area; an outline of the statutory powers requisite

to enable planning control to be exercised; suggestions for the establishment of a joint planning authority with legislation as indicated and recommendations upon the form of planning control that ought to be brought into operation for Greater Corner Brook as soon as possible". The period from 1951 to 1954 was critical for the development of the city, in that two new major industries were located with an attendant growth in population. It is therefore most regrettable that the suggestions of the consultants for the establishment of planning control were not immediately followed. It was in fact not until the middle of 1953 that the *Urban and Rural Planning Act* was passed. This Act was very largely based upon the outline of statutory powers submitted by the consultants. By the middle of 1954 when interim planning control was finally established in Corner Brook East and Corner Brook West the unsatisfactory uses of land noted by the consultants in 1951 had still further deteriorated and a number of problems which could have been avoided were presented to the administrators at that time. Fortunately, the Paper Company, in the continued development of the townsite, did follow the plans of Professors Bland and Spence-Sales with the result that very few changes in the

consultants' plan for the townsite were found to be necessary and some of those were dictated by unplanned changes which had taken place outside the boundaries of the townsite.

INTERIM CONTROL AND THE ORGANIZATION OF PLANNING

The *Urban and Rural Planning Act, 1953*, is a permissive Act under which any council constituted under the *Local Government Act* can prepare a Municipal Plan. This meant that the townsite, which was administered by the Company, and was not a council as defined in the Act, could not prepare a statutory plan. On each side of the townsite, however, were two incorporated municipalities which could and did, in 1954, resolve to prepare such a plan. It was obvious from the start that the Municipal Plan must include Townsite even though the Plan could have no statutory implementation in that area. The first plan prepared, therefore, covered the area of Corner Brook East and West and Townsite, with the intention that it would be a statutory plan for two-thirds of the area which it covered, the remaining one-third of the area planned would depend for its implementation upon the continued goodwill of the Pulp and Paper Company.

As soon as the Minister of Municipal Affairs had approved the resolution to plan, steps were taken to institute interim control measures. Under Sec. 9 of the *Urban and Rural Planning Act* an Order-in-Council was passed which prohibited any development whatsoever, including the subdivision of land, without the consent of the responsible council. The interim development order also allowed the council to refuse any application to build which it thought might be prejudicial to the planning proposals. As some safeguard to affected applicants, provision was made for appeal to the Provincial Planning Advisory Board against any decision of the council. These interim development powers could only remain in force for a maximum period of two years during which time the municipal plan had to be completed and put into operation.

It was not long after the field work got under way that the council of the incorporated municipality of Curling began to take an interest in planning their area, and in March 1955, they too resolved to prepare a Municipal Plan. From the administrative point of view the Provincial Planning Office had the difficult task of preparing a plan which had to be submitted to three separate municipalities, covering an area which was not in any sense a physical or social unity, an area furthermore where an amalgamation of government may at any time produce a centralized administration. As has been explained, on 1st January, 1956 a centralized administration took office, but it is doubtful whether anyone would argue that the Municipal Plan should have been delayed for two years merely to avoid administrative problems, serious, frustrating and time-wasting as they were.

CONTENTS OF THE PLANNING REPORT

A municipal plan under the *Urban and Rural Planning Act* calls for "proposals for the general development of the municipal area as can be foreseen for a period not exceeding ten years from the date of the completion of the municipal plan" and should be "designed to co-ordinate the public purposes of the authorized council that bear upon urban development so as to achieve the common well-being of

the community and to conserve the financial and material resources of the municipal area". The Act goes on to set out the documents and maps which should comprise the plan.

The Municipal Plan for Corner Brook consists of two reports, one dealing with Corner Brook East, Corner Brook West and Townsite and a separate report dealing with Curling. In the summary of the plan which follows, an attempt has been made to collate the information in the two reports wherever possible, but as will be seen, Curling does not fit very readily into the city of Corner Brook.

Survey and Analysis

(A) TOPOGRAPHY.

Topography has always dictated the physical growth of Corner Brook, and the first step in the planning study was an examination of the geology and geography of the site. On the eastern flank of the city, hills rise to over 800 feet from which altitude the great cliffs of the Humber Gorge fall to the river. The built up areas of the city are in three separate locations: firstly, Corner Brook East on the hillside rising from the shore of the Arm and also on the plateau at about the 350 feet level, which is the only relatively large level area within the city limits; secondly, the Company Townsite on sloping land rising gradually from the Corner Brook to the sharp escarpment which divides the townsite from Corner Brook East; thirdly, the built-up area of Corner Brook West around the east and south-east slopes of a great hill rising between Bell's Brook and the Humber Arm. Towards the north, the steep escarpment of this hill forms a complete physical barrier to development between Corner Brook proper and Curling. The topography of Curling is very broken and there are only a few small areas which are really suitable for any kind of building. At the far western extremity of Curling rises Mount Moriah which is an effective natural termination to the built up area of the city.

It was immediately apparent that land really suitable for additional building was very scarce. The topographical maps were analysed and plans prepared showing the slope of the ground. This was divided into three categories: Class "A", land with a slope of less than 10 per cent; Class "B", land with a slope of 10 to 20 per cent and Class "C", land with a slope of more than 20 per cent. As far as the physical possibility of building was concerned, the proposals eventually restricted development to land which was either in Class "A", or in Class "B" closely adjacent to Class "A", and which was also below the level to which the water supply system could be extended without the installation of pumping. *Figure 2* indicates this analytical approach to topography as employed in the Curling section of the area.

(B) LAND USE.

(i) **Industry.** The existing land use pattern in Corner Brook is indicated in *Figure 3*. The major industry, Bowater's Pulp and Paper Mill, has always been the focal point of the community and occupies a central site on low land, much of it reclaimed, at the mouth of the Corner Brook. Lying immediately to the east of the mill is the rather small harbour of the city. Running inland from the mill on the low lying land to the east of the river is a fairly extensive light industrial area known as Smithville. The only other major producing industries in the area are in Corner Brook East, where

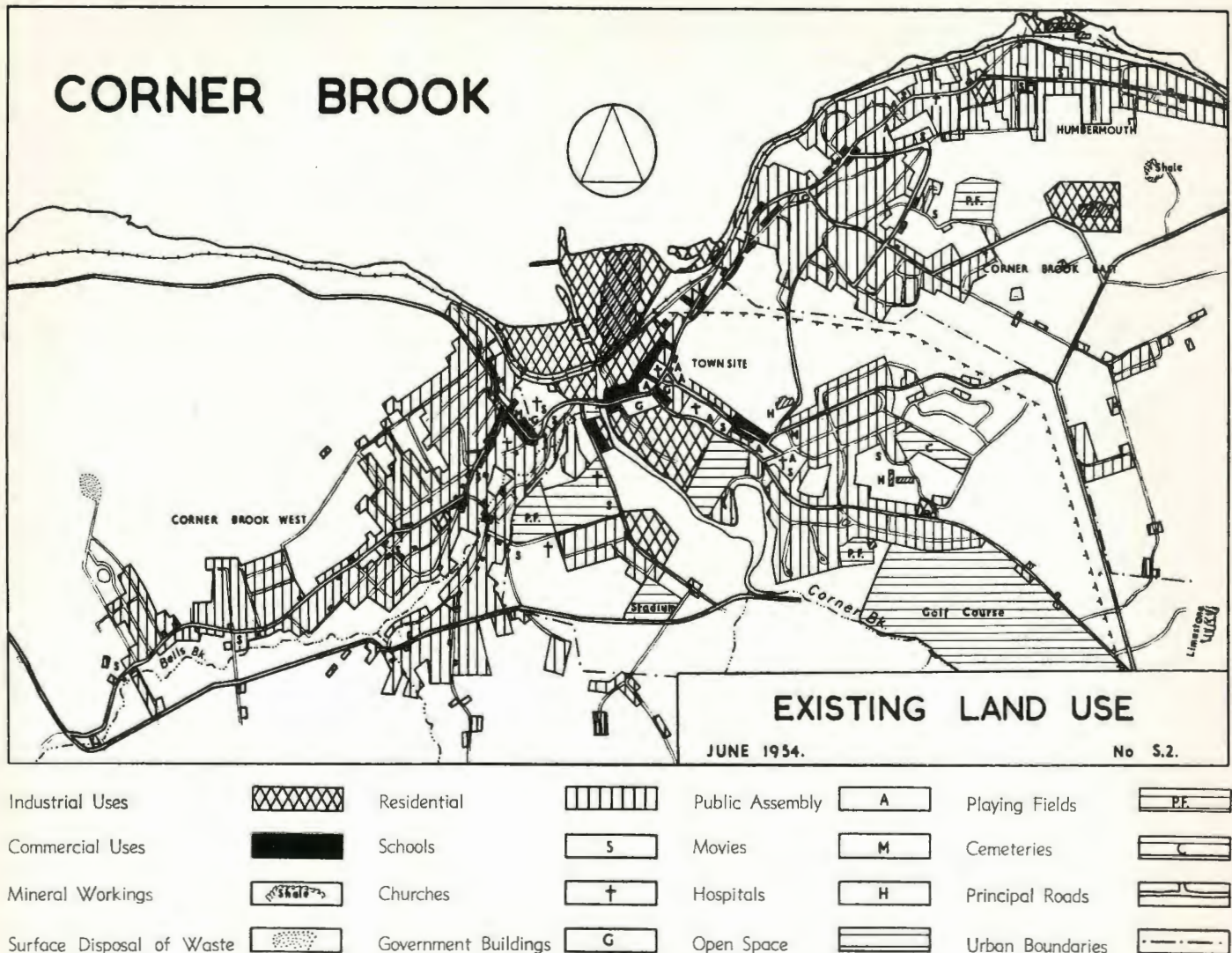


FIGURE 3. LAND USE 1934. Scale $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches to 1 mile approximately.

the Provincial Government-sponsored cement plant and gypsum plant with their attendant wharfage are located. From the planning viewpoint the location of the cement plant severely restricts proper development, for not only does it occupy a central position in the only large fairly level piece of land in the city but also has a very adverse effect, by reason of dust from the plant and blasting from the nearby shale quarry, on the potentialities of the Corner Brook East plateau for residential development. On the opposite side of the Trans-Canada Highway from the cement plant is a substantial limestone quarry which meets all the requirements of that plant. The location of the plant on the plateau necessitates each load of stone being carried across the Trans-Canada Highway and the present crossing is a source of potential danger to traffic on the highway. Also in Corner Brook East is a sand and gravel industry situated in Humbermouth near the point where the railway line to the east crosses the coast road.

There is no industry in Corner Brook West except for a small sawmill and in Curling the industries are in the main those traditional in an old established fishing community, namely fish processing plants and sundry wharfside activities. Curling does have the only vacant land adjacent to the shoreline which is suitable for industrial purposes along the entire coastline of over six miles. Some indication of the potential industrial development in Curling is the establishment of two oil tank farms within recent years, and at the time of writing, a third plant is under construction, in accordance with the provisions of the Municipal Plan.

(ii) **Commercial.** The commercial centre of the city is grouped, together with public and cultural buildings, around the intersection of the main coast road with the principal shopping street of Townsite. The location of this central area is unfortunate in that, not only does it sit astride a very busy and inadequate main road, but it lies sandwiched between the paper mill and the secondary industrial area

previously referred to. There is a considerable shopping centre in Corner Brook West at Broadway where the bulk of the city's retail stores are located. Out of 216 retail stores in the city excluding Curling, 105 are located in Corner Brook West and the great majority of these are on Broadway. The commercial area in the eastern part of the city is very small and takes the form of ribbon development along the coast road. There are the small beginnings of another commercial area on the edge of the plateau in Corner Brook East. Curling has no clearly defined shopping centre, the stores being distributed haphazardly along the whole length

of the coast road. There is, however, a minor concentration around the railway station and at points on the waterfront.

It was considered that the Broadway centre was not suitable for further expansion and that an effort should be made to create a really adequate shopping centre for the city as a whole. At the same time there was seen to be a clear need for a neighbourhood shopping centre to serve the newer homes on the eastern plateau, and an attempt should be made over the years to give weight and definition to a centre in Curling.

(END OF PART I)

REVIEW

A Redevelopment Study of Halifax, Nova Scotia 1957, by Gordon Stephenson, M.T.P.I.C., Published by the Corporation of the City of Halifax.

EDITOR'S NOTE. *There will shortly be a supplementary volume, prepared by John McVittie. The two volumes will cost \$3 and will be available from the City of Halifax or from CPAC, 77 MacLaren Street, Ottawa 4.*

Since the Government of Canada amended the N.H.A. in 1956 to broaden the provisions of the Act for assistance in clearing deteriorated areas of cities and rebuilding them, there have been a number of studies carried out in various Canadian cities, also with Federal Government assistance, to outline the scope of urban redevelopment requirements and what could and should be done in these cities.

One of the most recent of these is **A REDEVELOPMENT STUDY OF HALIFAX, NOVA SCOTIA 1957** by Professor Gordon Stephenson of the University of Toronto.

This study will probably be regarded as one of the more distinguished of its kind and a model for many others to follow.

At the outset in the preface, Professor Stephenson states the terms of reference under which his study was to be made, viz:

"to investigate and study housing conditions in the City of Halifax for the purpose of ascertaining: (a) the areas which require development and the order in which such areas should be redeveloped; (b) the best methods for re-housing families living in the areas planned for redevelopment; and (c) the recommended uses for the land when redeveloped; and to prepare a report upon the results of such investigation and study".

The study and the report fulfil the terms of reference admirably. It is characteristic of the author that he does not interpret narrowly what was asked of him. Because of the importance of the historical development of Halifax and because, as he says, the preparation of the report "required understanding the essentials in the growth of the city and region in order that conclusions might be drawn", he has taken some pains to see that the particular characteristics of Halifax are properly reviewed and understood. His review of the growth of the city and the significance of that growth



FROM A REDEVELOPMENT STUDY OF HALIFAX:

"The bridge is new, the Naval Dockyard has occupied its site for two centuries. But since the war it has been subject to continuous expansion and building activity. It is now congested and hemmed in by the railway. When the railway was built, a strip of housing, now obsolete and obsolescent, was left between the railway and Barrington Street. It is proposed that this should be cleared progressively, and that the strip should be occupied by buildings related to Harbour activities."

"The 'old northern suburb' is in the foreground. The post-war housing development across the Harbour provides a contrast. There are several proposals for redevelopment in the 'old northern suburb'."

to the current redevelopment problems are stated quite effectively both in the text and through the superb photographs which he has included.

In passing, the format of the report is good-looking, reflecting the quality of the publications for which Professor Stephenson was responsible in Great Britain, notably *THE TOWN PLANNING REVIEW*. The illustrations, too, bear that stamp.

The objectives of the report are to "reach practical proposals" and in so doing to "give guidance to the City Council, and to serve as evidence for co-operative action by the City, Provincial and Dominion Governments" and "presented in a way which could promote understanding amongst the citizens of Halifax". It is not, therefore, "loaded with complicated statistical tables". Of practical proposals there are plenty which should give a great deal of guidance to City Council and provide much of the evidence suggested. On this score, however, the complicated business of sorting out the multifarious facets of redevelopment projects involving law, finance, real estate, housing, administration and the like might have been emphasized more for the benefit of Council and the Administration. Redevelopment is not a simple process upon which a city can embark. It is complicated and a long-range responsibility. On this latter point Professor Stephenson is explicit.

Because the terms of reference apply only to the City of Halifax, the report's recommendations cannot go beyond these limits. Professor Stephenson, however, recognizes that in Halifax as in many other Canadian cities the *whole* long-range problem cannot be met within the city limits. When urban growth has spread beyond these limits and the central city is well-nigh completely developed, the whole problem of adequacy of housing in quality, quantity and location becomes metropolitan in character, and what may appear to be sound city policy may not in the long run turn out to be sound metropolitan policy.

There should be little difficulty for anyone to understand clearly the problems as Professor Stephenson states them and as he illustrates them with brief reports on the many studies made. It is a clear and uncluttered statement presented in a business-like way. It should be a help to many others who are trying to understand their own city's difficulties and want to take the first steps toward meeting some of them. Wider circulation of such reports should help us all to do a better job in redevelopment.

E. W. THRIFT

WINNIPEG

Mr. Thrift is Director of the Metropolitan Planning Commission of Greater Winnipeg and a Vice President of the Community Planning Association of Canada.

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Issued to its Members by the Community Planning Association of Canada, 77 MacLaren Street, Ottawa 4.

Membership dues, which include payments for the four issues of the *Review* and the *Community Planning News* (at least six issues yearly), are only \$5.

Separate *Review* subscription: \$3 for four issues, post free.

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Publication trimestrielle adressée à ses membres par l'Association canadienne d'urbanisme, 77, rue MacLaren, Ottawa 4.

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